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PRINCIPLES

OF

STATISTICAL INQUIRY;

ILLUSTRATED IN PROPOSALS

FOR

UNITING AN EXAMINATION

INTO THE

RESOURCES OF THE UNITED STATES

WITH

THE CENSUS

TO BE TAKEN IN

1840.

BY ARCHIBALD RUSSELL.

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PREFACE.

The following Essays, do not aspire to the character of a statistical treatise, nor to that of a full examination into the abstract principles of statistical inquiry.

In the last Annual Message of the President a proposal is made to unite the acquisition of Statistics with the enumeration of the people; and, aware of the failure of former attempts to investigate the condition of this country, by means of returns to the General Government, I have hoped to be able to suggest some alterations in the mode to be pursued.

It may be thought that an end so simple would have been more satisfactorily attained, by reducing these observations and suggestions to the smallest compass, instead of extending them through so many discursive chapters; and perhaps that would have been preferable; but I have adopted the present plan in order to attract some degree of

public attention to a theme which is usually considered devoid of general interest. I have therefore introduced some principles in political economy, which have reference to the several returns proposed; and for the purpose of showing the advantage which would accrue from a full exposition of the various resources of the country, I have given short statements of the information existing regarding them. It has been my object to propose no subject for inquiry without accompanying it with some observations for the purpose of attracting the attention of the reader, which I hope may be deemed a sufficient reason for the trivial nature of the notices sometimes introduced. The introduction of so many blank schedules may be thought by some an unnecessary degree of detail, in a work of this general character; but being anxious to procure the opinion of business-men upon the form most suitable for returns from the various manufacturing and agricultural interests, I have thought it better to propose them in the extended form in which I now present them.

The accuracy of the Tables I have inserted, may generally be relied on; but I would wish to caution the reader against supposing that they are made out with that scrupulous care, which some remarks I have made might lead him to anticipate; neither did the short time of preparation permit, nor did the purpose they were designed to

serve require, that accuracy in detail so essential to statistical works in general.

In pleading for an indulgent criticism upon the style and execution of these Essays, I may state that, being anxious at an early period to invite public attention to the propriety of profiting by the suggestion of the President, I have hurried many of them in a way which no young author should have attempted, and doubtless overlooked many verbal inaccuracies.

But to the views expressed, or the suggestions made on any of the subjects here discussed, I invite the fullest attention of the reader, the object of these pages being to promote the advancement of political and statistical science. The more freely the topics are canvassed, the more completely will that object be attained. It will ever give me much pleasure to have any inaccuracies pointed out, or alterations, in any proposed return suggested, by those more conversant with statistical details than myself; and as my desire has been to advance the interest of a favourite study, I shall consider that end attained if the attention of government, or statists in general, is attracted to the suggestions here proposed.

CONTENTS.

THE PRINCIPLES OF STATISTICAL INQUIRY.

THE study of Statisics, whether from the light which it throws upon the social relations of society, or the information it imparts regarding its political condition, is highly valuable and instructive. The social condition of a country is of more vital importance than its political, as the maintenance of peace and good order depends more upon the former than on the latter. It was not the dissipation of the Court at Versailles, nor the infidelity of the French school, so much as the condition of the mass of the community, the little vexatious and annoying inconveniences and restrictions, to which they were subjected, together with the absence of all practical religion, that awoke the horrors of the revolution of 1789; and the advantage which Europe has reaped from those scenes of bloodshed and rapine is chiefly to be traced in the improvement of the social relations, which that event has introduced. History, as generally considered, is rather the record of the actions of a government, than a picture of the actual condition of a country in its united social, and political aspect. Now if the

well-being of the community is the highest end of Government, the obvious mode of estimating the advantages of such Government, is by examining the condition of the mass of citizens or subjects, and the want of this examination, or practical test, is the great desideratum of the History of past ages. How little do we know of the condition of the people of Modern Europe, before the general introduction of printing opened a means for travellers, dramatic authors, journalists, and novelists, to paint the manners of their times. How much more graphic does history become, when the details of private life are mingled either with the successes or reverses of public arms; and how much more fully does a simple social institution, like the curfew, exhibit the primitive condition of society, than all the details of the Norman Conquest of England. History may be supposed to have a higher aim, than to chronicle the effects of social institutions, or to trace the indirect and ever varying influences of legislative enactments, and it is to occupy this ground that the modern science of statistics has been called into existence.

Statistics, as a science, is of very recent origin, the term being first used by Sir John Sinclair in his Parochial Account of Scotland. It is true, that various governments, for the purpose of raising their full complement of soldiers, and acquiring some data for apportioning or increasing their quota of taxes, have at different times instituted inquiries into the condition of the people, but as the ends in view were opposed to the interest and wishes of the mass of the community, the returns procured were necessarily defective. Towards the close of the 17th century,

Colbert made a statistical survey of France, and in England, the income tax, the doomsday book, poll tax, and hearth duties, have respectively furnished some rude data for estimating the population at different epochs. But statistics, defined as a classified and systematic arrangement of well-authenticated facts, can only be said to have its origin in the beginning of the 19th century.

To any one who considers the utilitarian and material principles which characterize the present age, applying the test of cui bono to every scheme of philosophy, morals, religion, or civil advancement, this pursuit of Statistics, as a science, can excite no surprise. But we must allow that the votaries of this science, have too frequently offered to the public, detailed statements of facts, decked out in all the imposing business-like aspect of tabular views, without having previously instituted a patient inquiry into the accuracy of the information on which they were based. "It is the easiest thing possible," says McCulloch, "to pile figures on figures, but unless deduced from correct data, they serve only to mislead; and they do this the more easily, that they have a scientific air about them, and that most people shrink from the irksome task of examining whether tabular statements be correct or not. There is nothing in fact of which one should be so sceptical, as the greater number of statistical facts and details, or with respect to which a sound and searching criticism is so necessary."*

Facts, no doubt, are the necessary basis of all inductive sciences, but it must be remembered, that

* Edin. Rev. cxiii.

figures are not facts, and that unless the certainty of the correctness of the data represented by numerals, be ascertained, arithmetical reasoning is of all others the most fallacious. It is evident, that the very causes which give such certainty to the conclusions of mathematical science, when referred to absolute quantities, must operate with equal force to prevent this mode of reasoning being applied to quantities of variable powers. Arithmetical inquiries deal only with certainties, and no account can be taken of the indirect causes which may tend to alter the final result; if any such cause exists, and can be determined and expressed in a mathematical equation, the argument proceeds to conclusion with equal certainty, and of the result there can be no suspicion; but if this indirect cause is of unknown power, no mathematical argument can proceed from the premises. Now it rarely happens, that the facts ascertained in statistical inquiries are of that positive and certain character, which can authorize the student's dealing with them as absolute quantities; and if not possessed of that inherent certainty, (the necessary quality of all arithmetical premises) there is no means of correcting the tendency to error which they may contain. To give a simple illustration, the velocity of a cannon ball, the resistance of the air, the attraction of the earth, and the expansion of powder, are all known quantities, and may be argued upon with certainty; but if, instead of a still and quiet atmosphere, offering a known resistance, the ball were projected against a current of air of unknown power, the result of the former estimate of its velocity would be erroneous. So it will ever be in

all subjects of investigation into the statistics of human actions and powers, and unless great care be used in reducing arguments logically sound, to an arithmetical form, a tendency to error will, ipso facto, be introduced, and require to be guarded against.

And there is another difficulty attendant upon the introduction of figures into arguments, which is, that in no way can an error be more rapidly circulated. The admission into any calculation, of an estimate which varies from the correct standard, especially if the calculation be by multiplication, renders the result often exceedingly erroneous, and the error in the premises can only be detected by the absurdity of the results. If each family in this country be estimated to contain four persons, and the number of families were ascertained to be two millions; any error in that estimate would greatly affect the conclusion—and, if instead of four persons, five should have been allowed to a family, the difference would be two millions in the amount of the population. "In a recent report to the British parliament we are favoured with some curious instances of the facility of arriving at the most preposterous conclusions, by the use of this 'political arithmetic.' The committee say, that were railroads constructed between the principal towns in the empire, one million of horses would be rendered superfluous, and as each horse consumes as much as eight men, the formation of such railroads would provide means for supporting about eight millions of men;" and as a man consumes more than a woman or child, we may suppose that the number of additional inhabitants England would then contain, would be about ten millions. As this fully illus-

trates the consequences which follow the introduction of unauthorized estimates into arithmetical statements, and the rapid increase of error, when once united with figures, and incorporated into a calculation; we need not pursue the subject any further, but merely remark, that the implicit belief many place in all detailed statements of figures, overlooking the most palpable errors, and placing the most perfect confidence in obvious absurdities, requires to be guarded against, and numerical statements, from the difficulty of examining them, should be received at all times with caution, and often with suspicion.

Let it not be thought, from these observations, that we wish to lower the general estimate of the value of statistical science, for looking upon it as the only sound foundation of political economy, we cannot but regret that it has been so little attended to—"Labours and researches in statistics," says Dr. Chalmers, "I hold in very high estimation, they furnish political economy with its best materials, and stand to this science in the same relation as facts do to philosophy." But it must ever be regretted, that the science of political economy, instead of following a patient investigation of facts, has preceded it, and that when Adam Smith elucidated the doctrines, which he was able to detect with all the clearness and distinctness for which he is so pre-eminent, neither the area, population, occupation, wealth, nor progressive advance, of his native country were known, but each was the subject of a vague conjecture. Now it is obvious, that if any science ought to be inductive it is political economy, which has for

its subject the uncertain laws which regulate humanity, and natural products; and for its aim the advancement of the social condition of the world. Predicated accordingly upon false and insufficient data, it is only to be wondered at, that the earlier writers on this science were able to attain such correct and well-digested views, and if the science, as explained by them, proved to be miserably defective in practice, the error is to be attributed rather to the want of sufficient premises for their speculations, than to any logical error. From these causes, it is much to be regretted that a science, which might have been pre-eminently useful to the human race, has fallen into great disrepute, and that the theories which it promulgated, of the advantages of intercourse and free trade, have been counteracted by the restrictions of commerce, which it has been the favourite policy of practical statesmen to recommend. Such has been the fate of the science of political economy, which, aiming at first at too Icarian a flight, has not been able to sustain itself.

If political economy, as a science, is ever to regain its position, it must be by laying a more solid and sure foundation, and by raising the superstructure of theory upon a basis of facts, not "drawn from imagination," but the result of patient statistical investigation—and, however advanced we may appear in the arrangements for promoting the physical comforts of all classes of the community, the details of our present social organization are utterly unknown, and the writer in another century, who wishes to draw an accurate picture of our present condition, must pursue the same means as we have now to use in de-

picting the manners of the 18th century. We have no facilities for estimating the effect which the increased civilization of the world has had upon the morals, the longevity, the social happiness, or domestic habits of our race, but as we are ourselves utterly ignorant of the present condition of the country, we cannot anticipate that posterity will be better informed.

It is generally supposed that the same degree of attention to statistics is not to be expected in the widely extended regions of the United States, as in the more circumscribed countries of Europe; and that the necessity of investigation does not exist to the same extent in this country as there. But we apprehend that this impression is very erroneous, and that a greater insight into our present condition than can be obtained regarding the different European countries might fairly be expected; in a land in which education everywhere prevails—where few prejudices, comparatively speaking, exist—where few abuses, which shun the light of day, are nurtured—and in which the utmost publicity is given to the operations and proceedings of government. Although the area of the country is great, it is amply subdivided into counties and townships for local government, there being, in 1830, 937 of the former, and 5789 of the latter; and though the extent and distance of the various states from the seat of general government may seem great, yet the post-coach threads its way to the remotest corner, traversing about 200,000 miles of roads, and distributing intelligence at about 12,000 post-offices. In every township there is some public officer, appointed

by the laws of the state in which he resides: at every post-office the general government has an officer whose intelligence must be equal to the task required, and whose services may be commanded. The wealth of the country and the density of the population are not the questions which need now be inquired into; but the true subjects of inquiry are, is there sufficient intelligence prevalent to authorize statistical inquiries? and does the remoteness of the district prevent the directions of government from being properly attended to? These are the only obstacles which can present themselves; and these no one acquainted with the condition of the country will hold to be of any account. The subject of statistical inquiry is not abstruse and difficult of comprehension; but any man, competent to transact the most ordinary affairs of life, may be an efficient agent. It is not the province of the assistant marshal to generalize the returns he may make out, or even to insert any estimate into his report; but he has only the easy task of proposing a printed query, and of inserting the answer he may receive to it, and then ends his duties by a simple enumeration of all the answers he has received. It therefore is only requisite that the assistant should be an honest man—one who, assuming the responsibility of an oath, will carefully comply with its requirements; and that he should possess an accurate knowledge of the localities of the district which is assigned to him. As far, then, as the objection to taking a particular survey of the country arises from the number of assistants required, a little consideration will show its futility, as the degree of intelligence requisite is of a very ordi-

nary standard. It may be thought, on casting the eye cursorily over the various schedules scattered throughout this essay, that to comply with all the requirements would be an almost Herculean task; but they are intended to facilitate rather than increase the labour of the assistants, and, when attentively considered, the simplicity of the arrangement will be fully apparent. If any one, not accustomed to mercantile pursuits, has to transact some business at a custom-house, and to make up the requisite statements, and get them signed and countersigned, the intricacy of the detail will almost overwhelm him; whereas the regular business man can, without the least exertion, comply with all the legal requirements. So, in like manner, the tables appended may at first sight seem complicated; but the practised assistant will find no difficulty in comprehending the object of the arrangement. We are therefore quite confident that there will be no difficulty experienced in procuring able and efficient agents to perform the work required, if the compensation allowed by Congress be sufficient.

If no obstacle need, then, be expected from the difficulty of procuring assistants; so none need be apprehended from any averseness in the community at large to answer them. In taking the census on previous occasions, it has been thought advisable to insert a clause in the law, imposing a penalty for a refusal to answer; and even this we do not think would be necessary. Let it only be generally known that the investigation is made for the public benefit, and that all classes and all professions are equally interested—that the investiga-

tion proceeds from no party feeling, but that all interests, commercial and manufacturing, agricultural and professional, are alike to be represented—and we doubt not but that the fullest and most satisfactory result will flow from the attempt. It would be unpopular for any individual to oppose this legitimate inquiry of the general government; and we doubt not that public opinion will fully sustain the plan being executed with all the requisite minuteness of detail.

Statistics, as a science, has been divided by the Germans into two distinct branches; the one is considered as treating solely of the present condition of a country, enumerating and valuing its present products, examining the rate of taxation and wages, the extent of education and crime, and various other details of civil economy, as they exist at one particular time, rigidly excluding all comparisons with the former commercial, political, or social condition of the country; and this has been styled *descriptive statistics.* The other branch, while it embraces the descriptive statistics, unites with it a retrospective view of the state of the country, in order to discover the improvement or retrogression which has taken place; and his has been styled *Comparative Statistics.* However proper we may consider the application of the latter branch to all statistical works, which purport to exhibit a picture of any country, there can be no doubt but that, in the event of the opportunity being improved, which the taking of the census offers, the United States Government should confine itself solely to descriptive statistics. With the other, there must always necessarily be a mixture of theory, and

it is quite possible so to arrange a detail of facts as to bias the reader towards one or other of the leading political creeds of the day. This ought to be rigidly avoided, and the most careful means should be taken to prevent any prejudice from tincturing the returns which Goverment may present to the country.

"In recommending," says Mr. Van Buren, "to Congress the adoption of the necessary provision at this session, for taking the next census, or enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, the subject presents itself, whether the scope of the measure might not be usefully extended by causing it to embrace authentic statistical returns of the great interests specially trusted to, or necessarily affected by, the legislation of Congress." This, then, is the opportunity presented to us. It is suggested, by the President, in his Annual Message, and every feeling of National self-respect, and the general welfare of the country, call loudly for its adoption. Whatever be the race which the United States has to run; whatever be the honours or power which await its progressive improvement, a knowledge of its present state, of its available resources and general condition, would be alike serviceable to its present interests, and conducive to its future advancement. The attention of Europe is steadfastly turned towards the condition of America, and, while a large mass of its inhabitants are earnestly desiring to see the principles of freedom surmount the difficulties which obstruct their progress; many are indulging the secret, yet confident expectation of seeing the Federal Union vered, and anarchy and confusion destroying its present tranquillity—and surely it were a proud task, and

one which the Government and people would equally rejoice to promote, to herald to other climes, and other institutions, the fruits of that liberty which the revolution has achieved, and to record the unrivalled improvement which the country has undergone in the brief period since that event was consummated. We do not think that it is necessary to colour the picture with the brightest hues, and exhibit the country in its holiday garb, to excite the attention and admiration of distant beholders, for, by such indiscriminate colouring, the cause of truth and inquiry is not advanced; but, laying aside all eulogy, on the other hand, it were a pleasant task to portray the improved condition of the mass of the citizens, their increasing intelligence arising from their political privileges, the order and morality which a general distribution of property has introduced, the expert mechanical talent of the country which circumstances have called into action, and the resources, improvement, and natural wealth, of this large portion of the Universe, which is confederated under one General Government—such were pleasant themes, and if topics of a less agreeable character were to be treated of, and the crime, and general condition of the South; the pauperism and prevailing intemperance, were to be painted not in exaggerated, but in true and lively colours, the advantages which would flow from it would more than counterbalance the painfulness of the exposure; and further, we believe that a principle, tending to improvement, would be exhibited, which would gradually soften and mellow the portrait which might be drawn, and that, though the matrix might be base, a vein of pure metal would be seen, to give promise of

a yet more improved and advanced state of society. It has been truly remarked, that those times are most conducive to the best interests of humanity, which are least interesting to the historian, who, loving to record the spirit-stirring scenes of war, or the intricacies of courtly intrigue, can find little to interest him in the tranquil pursuits of a peaceful community. But it is not so with the statist, for his inquiries lie among the ordinary pursuits of the people, when conscription and levies are unheard of; when taxation is not augmented to supply the absorbing demands of war, and when the energies of the country are not languishing in fruitless proscription, non-intercourse and embargoes. And such is happily now the condition of this country, basking in the sunshine of prosperity, at peace with all the world, and pursuing the natural bent which her resources may suggest, or policy may dictate. No time could be more propitious for taking an accurate and particular survey of her existing condition.

Of the advantages of such a survey it were almost needless to speak, as the most casual observer must remark the incalculable benefits, which an accurate knowledge of the working of the political, the influence of the moral and social, and the effects of the Manufacturing and Agricultural condition, would be fraught with. If the trite aphorism, knowledge is power, is at any time true, it is so pre-eminently when it is said that a knowledge of resources must precede the power to use them. The advantages of such returns as we are now about to propose, may either be referred to the information which they would impart to Government, or the general picture which

they would exhibit to the community, of the various interests and present condition of the country.

To the Government it may be said to be essential to have such returns, as will exhibit the condition of the various interests, "specially trusted to, or necessarily affected by, the legislation of Congress," presented at different stated periods. From a total absence of all such returns in this country and England, we cannot illustrate their importance by any reference to the practical utility which they have subserved; but it were an easy task to cite a thousand instances in which the want of them has been the occasion of most absurd errors. It is impossible to look through the reports to committees to the houses of Congress, without being struck with the difference continually exhibited in the statements of the condition of the country, and the confidence with which they are asserted Now it may be remarked, that upon the same statement of facts, most men form a similar opinion, or, at least, that the judgment which a corresponding condition calls forth, will resemble closely any previous opinion regarding it; and it is on the principle that the average of the community will come to a sound conclusion that the Jury practice has been so universally introduced into the Courts of Justice. So it is in the current affairs of life; the conclusions an individual comes to are generally correct if the individual acts honestly with himself; and errors, in results, may be traced to wrong premises, prejudiced views, or a mistaken position. So in public discussions, where the premises are uncertain, the conclusions of either party cannot be controverted; and no logical argument can weigh

against any statement which a political opponent may parade. Now if the premises which form the groundwork of discussion, in the National and State legislatures, were more accurately ascertained, we fully believe that the violent and contradictory opinions expressed, the heat of party strife, which is much fostered by the prevailing ignorance, and the extreme doctrines entertained by the political leaders of the day, would be mutually harmonized, and while a difference of opinion always must exist, the differences would be less marked, and the violence with which they were entertained, would be much modified. It were an endless task to illustrate the present condition of the majority and minority reports annually presented to Congress, where it is very remarkable that the arguments never proceed upon a common statement of facts, but to each report is prefixed a separate detail, as the ground of the opinion which it contains The various reports presented to Congress during the discussion of the New Tariff Act, especially by the New York and Philadelphia Conventions, forcibly illustrate this; and the debates upon the Bank question, (regarding which there could be less difference in a detail of facts,) present a very striking contrast from the usual tenor of discussion, as there the difference of opinion related to the principles of Banking, and the powers of Government, and, of consequence, the debates were of a much more elevated character than those ordinarily prevailing, until party feeling, breaking up the constitutional usages of the Government, made way for accusation, insinuations, and inaccurate statements. Every one in the habit of looking into these reports, must be struck with the most

opposite opinions and contradictory facts constantly stated, and it is to be regretted, that this system of random assertion is not the characteristic of American reports only, for we have already instanced the errors regarding the introduction of railways into England, and we may instance one other example of absurd generalization from incorrect data. "In 1800 the Woollen Manufacturers in England strenuously objected to some of the provisions in the treaty of union with Ireland, and were allowed to urge their objections at the bar of the House of Lords, and to produce evidence in their support. Mr. Law, (afterwards Lord Ellenborough) the Counsel employed by the Manufacturers on this occasion, stated, in his address to their Lordships, on information communicated to him by his clients, that 600,000 packs of wool were annually produced in England and Wales, worth at £11 per pack £6,600,000, and that the value of the manufactured goods was three times as great, or £19,800,000; that not less than 1,500,000 persons were directly engaged in the operative branches of the manufacture, and that it collaterally employed about the same number of hands, or about three millions in all. Now it would appear that the produce of wool, at that period, did not exceed 400,000 packs; and that one-third of the population were engaged in fabricating it into cloth is too preposterous to receive an answer."* And among the Reports of Committees, and of Petitions to Congress, let any one compare the documents presented by the Iron Manufacturers and the Iron Workers of this country, those presented by the Coal Miners, and the different Man-

* Edin. Review, ciii.

ufacturers, on the Coal trade, during the course of the last session of Congress, to see the vagueness with which statements presented to the National legislature are made.

The ignorance which prevails regarding the present condition of this, as well as other countries, operates to the disadvantage of Government in various ways, as it cripples the arm of executive power, and exposes the state of the country to unmerited censure. When it was publicly asserted in the French Chamber of Deputies, that the Government of the United States was more expensive than that of France, what authority could the American Minister, or any American citizen, cite, for the purpose of contradicting such an error? His bare assertion would be no proof of the accuracy of his statement and the inaccuracy of the other; and it is very doubtful whether he would feel himself warranted to take any measures of refuting it other than by making a simple contradiction of a statement which was reduced to a detailed comparison of the taxation of this country and France; making the former 35 francs on each individual, and the latter 30 francs. When even the most incorrect assertion like this, is made without any foundation or authority, it is well known that, until proof be produced of its inaccuracy, its truth is currently believed; and the phrase that it has not been contradicted, passes synonymously with that it has been proved to be true. The National honour requires that the idle rumours which some are interested in creating, or circulating, should be effectually silenced, and accurate information is all that is required to confute them.

And again: The recent Tariff bill reduced the rate of duties to a low standard, in order to make the receipts of the Custom House equal to the annual expenses of the Government, without any accumulation of money in the National Treasury, and therefore should this country be involved in war with any European power, however short the period of hostilities might prove, a system of internal and direct taxation must be adopted; as not only are the duties on foreign goods insufficient for the necessary outlay, but the source of this revenue, in the event of war, is materially curtailed; and on what branch of domestic industry, or on what principles should the assessment be laid on the inhabitants of the different States, to make up the deficiency, and raise the requisite sums? This is not an idle hypothesis, as the difficulty has already occurred; and during the direct taxation in 1815 and 1816, the greatest difficulty was experienced in determining upon what the assessment should be imposed, and in selecting the value of houses and lots great inequality prevailed. By the constitution it is provided, that the amount of taxes which each State shall furnish, shall be in the ratio of its representation, or, in other terms, in proportion to its population, by which is evidently meant, that each individual in the United States should furnish a similar per centage of the value of his property. Now the last mode of taxation was very unequal in its operation, as in the State of Maine the inhabitants of the County of Cumberland, for every hundred dollars value of their lands and houses, paid 38 cents 9 mills, while, in several other counties, the sum paid on every hundred dollars value of lands and houses,

was only 17 cents, and the average paid through the whole State of Massachusetts was only 21 cents 2 mills for every hundred dollars.* It were certainly proper for the Government to be prepared with such returns of the actual condition of the country, as should enable them to apportion the taxes according to some general principles, founded upon an accurate acquaintance with the capacities and resources which they had to deal with, and not legislate in entire ignorance of the interests and habits of the people. It is earnestly to be desired, that the period when direct taxation is again resorted to, should be very remote; and that the peace and tranquillity which rest upon the country should long be undisturbed; but the best means of preserving its continuance, is by being prepared to exhibit a statement of the resources and capacities which it contains; while the speediest means of restoring it, should unforeseen difficulties disturb it, is by being able to rouse the latent energies which it possesses into immediate action. And this can never be effectually done if all the sources of information are, in the meantime, dried up and exhausted; and if, instead of taking instant steps to provide for the emergency, the preliminary measures of inquiry and investigation must be entered upon, before the views and plans of the Government could be determined; and then that determination must necessarily be faulty, being based upon such ill-digested information.

On the other hand, the people of the United States

* Pitkin's Statistics, p. 312.

have, apart from their government, an interest in rigidly examining into the statistics of the country. It is not in this as in most other countries, that a knowledge of one section gives a good general idea of another, for the difference of climate and soil are so extreme that no general estimate can be formed of the whole, and a statistical account of one district, can give no criterion by which to judge of any other. Bound together by one national tie, the inhabitants of this country are in the habit of contemplating the various states which form the Union as an united whole, and to migrate from one to the other as fancy or interest may dictate; and therefore how interesting to have the resources of the various sections, the arts and manufactures of different districts, the progress or depression of particular states, the education and the crime of different divisions of the country accurately portrayed. The stimulus which such returns would give to the manufacturing and agricultural interests, the openings which such an insight into the habits of the people would afford to the energy of the trader, and the general utility to all classes of the community, are more easily enumerated than fully depicted.

There is an objection however, to having the returns which we are about to propose made out, which may be started by some, and which therefore it were well to pre-consider. That is the *constitutionality* of the United States government entering upon investigations regarding matters which are not placed under their direct cognizance. The subject of constitutionality will probably be a bone of contention as long as the union of the States remains entire, and one therefore, which it were folly to think of discussing here;

one party wishing always to confine the powers of the general government to the strict letter of the constitution, the other to add many collateral powers to those directly expressed, as necessarily concomitant to them; such as the existence of power to establish a national bank; as the accompaniment of the power to regulate the commerce, the establishment of a Military Academy, as necessary for the defence of the country, and various other similar questions. With the two great divisions of public opinion on this subject, we have nothing to do, and we would wish merely to show that similar investigations to those now proposed, have been already sanctioned by the party who support the literal interpretation of the constitution; hoping that no objection will be made by those who uphold its general applicability to all matters of this kind. In the year 1832, when General Jackson was president, Mr. Livingston commenced some very interesting inquiries into the amount of taxation, and the number of clergy in the United States; in the last census, of 1830, when the present president was Secretary of State, the number of blind and deaf and dumb were enumerated, and certainly there is no reason, if this were a proper subject of inquiry, why the number of convicts should not be taken, and the number of persons who can read and write, for such would be of equal political interest with the other; the number of emigrants who enter the country, are annually reported, to the Secretary of the Treasury, with the particulars of their age, and the countries from which they come, and if constitutional, there can be no valid objection made to having the same information procured regard-

ing the residents in the United States; and the reports which, under Mr. Adams and General Jackson, were obtained regarding the manufactures of the United States, would certainly warrant the same minuteness of inquiry being extended to the agricultural interests of the country. Such are a few of the inquiries which have been instituted by the general government, especially by those now in office, and there seems an equally apparent connection between the subjects we are about to propose and those already treated of. When the question of constitutionality relates to powers which may, if perverted, undermine the foundation of government, we think any one who apprehends dangerous consequences, is not only justified, but bound to oppose any innovation, but where the desired extension of power relates solely to the legitimate ends of acquiring information, we would hope no such objections will be raised to impede the aim we have in view.

The period for the enumeration of the people, has already been twice embraced for the purpose of acquiring statistical information regarding the state of manufactures; first, in 1810 and again in 1820, and it would seem that the defectiveness of the returns thus procured, prevented the attempt from being made at the taking of the last census in 1830. In that census however, the want of statistical information is amply atoned for, by the increased attention bestowed upon the classification of the population, and the insight which it will eventually give us into the theory of population, the ratio of increase, and other interesting topics in vital statistics. In 1810, the Secretary of State placed the very defective

returns received from the marshals, in the hands of Mr. Tench Coxe, of Philadelphia, for classification and arrangement, and although they are reported to have been very defective and to contain a number of the most glaring inconsistencies, that gentleman was able to arrive at a rough estimate of the various productions of the country. But as attention to detail is absolutely necessary in acquiring information regarding statistics, the abstract then prepared must be regarded rather in the light of an estimate than an official statement.

The returns of 1820, we will again refer to at greater length when speaking of the manufactures of the country, but we believe they were more defective than those of the preceding decimal period, and that no abstract or classification has ever been made from them.

It is for the purpose of calling the attention of government and the community at large, to the propriety and facility of obtaining ample returns from the various states of their increasing wealth, their extending manufactures, their improvements in education, and the expenses of their government, that we have hastily embraced the opportunity since the message of 1838, of inquiring into the principles which ought to regulate the examination proposed, and of preparing appropriate schedules for the use of the marshals. We are well aware that this is no popular task, and therefore, one to which we cannot expect to draw much attention, but partial to the pursuit of statistical investigation, we have hoped to excite a sufficient interest in the subject during the recess of Congress, to induce that body to secure more careful

legislation regarding it, than has hitherto been considered necessary.

In making some general observations upon the principles which should regulate the inquiry into the nation's present condition, it will be necessary to observe,

1st. That the form of schedules which should be circulated throughout the country, for the purpose of eliciting the desired information, need not be the form in which they are ultimately presented to the public, but should be so arranged as to suit the various sections of the country, and before publication they might be modified and condensed upon some general principles.

2d. These schedules should be adapted to the actual condition of the state to which they are sent. There are many of the proposed subjects of inquiry which are generally and universally applicable, and to these, such as population, manufactures and agriculture, our present observations do not extend, and under their respective heads we will consider the most eligible mode of obtaining returns; but at present, we refer to those subjects of inquiry which relate to the operation of certain laws which differ materially in the various states. Now if the schedule is so arranged that the available information cannot be entered in the lists, the returning officer will feel himself entitled to avoid the trouble, and leave a return if not perfectly applicable to his district, entirely blank. As a simple example, let us instance the returns of pauperism from the different states; if a marshal received a blank schedule thus drawn out to fill up,

Are the poor in this County supported in poor-houses?	Are the poor boarded out in private families?	What is the average No. of poor in this county?	What is the average expense of each pauper?

and if the returns he could procure in the district were reported to him in the following form—

"The whole number of poorin the county for the last year, was 50; the whole amount paid out in the course of the year, was $150": it is evident that the one set of returns will not correspond with the other, as in the latter case, the poor may have been on the roll only during the winter months, and no account is taken of the term for which they receive charity; and in this case, the marshal would consider himself justified in making no return. So in like manner if in estimating the value of personal property in the several states; in some where the taxes are paid on a per centage of the personal estate, there would be no difficulty in procuring answers to any query drawn out in reference to the matter, but if instead of a per centage upon the whole personal estate, as is the plan pursued in New-York, a certain rate were charged upon various descriptions of property, such as horses and cattle, carriages, &c., as in New-Jersey; the table suited for the one return, would be inapplicable to the other. This would of course require a particular and accurate knowledge of the condition of each state and its general internal economy, and we have neither the means nor the time to exhibit such detailed schedules for completing

the census, but it would be easy for the Secretary of State to procure from the district attorneys, or other competent officers, a plan for making these inquiries in each state or district, or an examination of the laws of the different states would exhibit the principle on which such a schedule should be conducted. And,

3dly. Instead of following, these investigations ought to precede the enumeration of the people. In 1810 and 1820, when the returns were procured, they were found to be in such confusion as to be almost without value, whereas had a patient examination into the proper form of queries been instituted previously, there can be no doubt but that the amount of information obtained, would have been incalculably increased.

Let the experience of the past therefore be profited by, and the opportunity of turning to account, the present taking of the census of the people be practically improved, before the period shall arrive when the work must be commenced. Occurring only at intervals of ten years, it were but proper that no trouble should be spared in the investigation, for the satisfactory preparation of the schedules, or in the subsequent arrangement of them, but that the one and the other should bear the marks of diligence and care. The large amount of money which the census may be expected to cost, upwards of six hundred thousand dollars, is of itself an ample excuse for calling the attention of the public to the most advantageous means of disbursing so much money; while the interest and value which would attach to the statistical

details which might be procured, will excite the hopes of those fond of this study.

In the following observations, we will cursorily enumerate the various topics which demand attention, and in our remarks upon them, will be guided by two principles which we desire may be constantly remembered. We have given short notices of each branch of inquiry which we propose, mentioning the interest which would attach to the return, and the propriety of obtaining it, and to these notices we have added short statistical statements, either

1st. For the purpose of showing how much information has been already procured on the subject there treated of, either in the United States, or in some particular state or section, and arguing from such statement, that if the means of obtaining the information existed at any previous time, or if in any limited section, the possibility of procuring it had been tested, there could be no valid reason why it should not again be procured, or why the examination previously local, might not be made general. The increasing intelligence of the people, and the general diffusion of education, rather tend to promote the objects of such inquiries, than to retard them, and sorry would be the picture of the country, if more disinclination to further the inquiries of government prevailed at the present day, than at any previous period. The inhabitants of the country at large, freed from all direct taxation by the general government, and virtually unconscious that they do contribute to its support, can have no apprehension of the object of the inquiries being the prelude to taxation, a feeling,

that occasions great difficulty in procuring statistics in Europe. "Before the books were prepared," says Dr. Cleland, "an advertisement was put into all the newspapers, requesting the inhabitants to favour me with their suggestions as to classification, and before the list-takers commenced their operations, bills were posted on the houses informing the inhabitants of the nature of the inquiries, and that they had no reference to taxes, militia, &c."* But in this country, where the inhabitants have been accustomed to the taking of the census on previous occasions, and where information to Government is not associated with taxation, no such preliminary measures are necessary, and we see no reason to apprehend any difficulty to be overcome, or prejudice to be struggled against, in completing the desired returns.

2dly. The other object which we have in view by the notices of the various topics referred to, is different from the general aim of statistical statements. They are usually intended to show how much is known upon a subject, while these are intended to show how little accurate information on that subject can be procured. After mentioning the advantages which would accrue, either to the Government or to the community, from information on some particular branch of inquiry, we will add the whole amount of actual knowledge which can be gained on the subject at present, and thus, by contrast, endeavour to exemplify the importance of the proposed return; or we will occasionally refer to the later works on

* Cleland's Statistics of Glasgow and Lanarkshire, 1832.

British statistics, to illustrate the information which we are desirous of procuring. And in no way we believe, can the information sought after be more completely realized, or the necessity of procuring it be made more apparent, and therefore we have had recourse to it.

It is on these two principles, and on these alone, that the following examination into the nature and condition of this country, in its social and operative relations has been instituted, and while some little information may occasionally be conveyed, it would be most unfair to consider the following pages in the light of a systematic statistical essay. Whether we may fulfil the aim we have in view, or whether the means we may use be not adequate to the end proposed, it is for our readers, not ourselves, to judge; but we must insist upon the judgment, proceeding not on any high estimate of what the work should be, but with the constant remembrance of the object of the present attempt. The plan of this work is certainly not ambitious, and the interest attaching to it, must necessarily be of a temporary character, although we believe that the principles which are the ground work of these investigations, are permanent in their nature, and will at any time bear the test of rigid examination.

In the plan of this essay we embrace an inquiry into those topics only, regarding which we think it practicable to obtain information, omitting all reference to many interesting subjects which foreign statists investigate, and omitting those inquiries, also, which may be examined from sources at present

available. Among the former, the expenses of the various classes of society,* all reference to the amount of litigation in the United States, the price and quality of the food consumed in various sections of the country, any general investigation into the remuneration for the services of professional men, manufacturers, or farm labourers, and various other topics, might be mentioned, which we have omitted because it is impossible to see the means by the use of which the information could be obtained. It is true that we might procure rough estimates from different parts

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**Income of one thousand francs, as expended in Paris, according to M. Millot, and given by Dr. Bowring, in his Parliamentary Reports.*

		Francs.
For taxes, direct, indirect, local, &c.		136.05
Food, of which the proportions per cent. are		
26	Drink,	352.43
34	Animal food,	
19	Bread,	
11	Colonials,	
7	Vegetables,	
2	Condiments,	
1	Water,	
Education of children,		35.73
Rent and repair of buildings,		114.00
Clothing,		70.48
Light and fuel,		68.18
Washing,		36.00
Furnishing house,		68.02
Expenses for servants,		46.00
Horses and carriages,		32.88
Coach hire,		11.54
Tobacco,		6.51
Baths,		3.20
Charity,		11.42
Medical attendance,		11.56
Newspaper.		3.43
Theatres,		7.09
Other expenses,		6.44
		1020.98

When it is remarkable that no reference is made to the support of religion, or literature, as a source of expense, there is much dry humour—a rare quality with statists—in making the annual expenditure of a Parisian of one thousand francs income amount to one thousand twenty-one francs.

of the country regarding some of these; but, averse to incorporating estimates in these government returns, we believe that all reference to such subjects is better omitted. Among the latter class which we have thought it better to omit, stand some of the most prominent sources of the progressive advancement of the country; but as the custom-house reports are made with great accuracy, and exhibit great detail of information, any separate inquiry is unnecessary. Ship-building, in all its branches, may be classed among these subjects, as the annual amount of tonnage added to the mercantile navy is known, as well as the size and class of vessels to which it belongs. The amount of tonnage and its value being determined, the value of labour and of material can easily be ascertained by queries put to the leading ship-builders at the different ports, and from their answers accurate details might be arrived at. The fisheries of the United States is another subject which is accurately reported on at present, whether we refer to the enterprising whale fisheries or hardly less arduous bank fisheries.

There is another class of subjects which we have preferred omitting, from the difficulty of obtaining accurate returns regarding it, but which the officer directing the investigation may think it proper to insert, viz., the products of the forest, whether the value of the timber annually felled, or the amount of furs, skins, medicinal herbs, &c. procured from it.

On the other hand, the objects of inquiry which we have thought it advisable for the government to pursue relate to the population, the manufacturing and agricultural interests of the country, the occupa-

tions of the people, the place of nativity of the inhabitants of the United States, the vital statistics, crime and pauperism of the country, the education and taxation which prevail in the several states, together with the most appropriate means of procuring these returns, the agents to be employed, and the remuneration to be offered. Under these more general divisions many subordinate subjects must necessarily arise; and, when fully considered and amply reported on, a mass of statistical information will be the result, which has never been equalled by the researches of any modern statist.

We have said modern statists, for we believe that during the vigorous manhood of the Roman empire, statistics were generally pursued; and the Roman senate had the most ample details, not only of the population, wealth and habits of their domestic citizens, but also of their remotest colonies and provinces, periodically laid before them. When we consider the extent of the Roman empire—embracing the greater part of Europe, stretching far into Asia, and claiming the whole northern shore of Africa—we cannot but be struck with the mechanism of a government which procured ample accounts of the condition and prosperity of its tributaries in every quarter. And if proper and suitable for the table of the Roman capitol, why should such returns not cover that of the American; and if in the darker ages of ancient rule it were possible to procure them, in the modern advancement of society the facilities for doing so must be much increased. The following quotation from the Roman history of Livy will show the existence of such returns, relative to the domestic and the

foreign population; and we shall afterwards allude to the measures taken to procure them. "It was ordained that a survey of the persons and estates should be made in those colonies (Latine,) according to a regulation to be directed by the Roman censor, which should be the same as was directed for the Roman people; and a return of this, made at Rome, of those colonies on their oaths before they went out of office."* And the biblical reader will find that this practice explains the apparent contradiction betweenSt. Luke ii, 2, 3, and Acts v, 37; as the enumeration of the Jewish people was first made at the time of the birth of our Saviour, but the taxes consequent upon it were not imposed until eleven years afterwards, when Cyrenius was governor of Syria.

In presenting, therefore, this subject to the public, in detail, some time before the period of the enumeration of the people usually begins, we hope to attract sufficient attention to interest the government and those engaged in statistical pursuits in the most expedient way of procuring information. "Scarcely any man publishes a book," says Dr. Johnson, "whatever it may be, without believing that he has caught the moment when the public attention is vacant to his call, and the world is disposed in a peculiar manner to learn the art which he undertakes to teach."† If we do not plead guilty to this confident feeling, we are at least conscious of the appropriateness of the time of publishing these observations; and we do so in the hope of advancing the interests of political science in this country.

* Historia Romana, xxix, 15.

† Preface to Rolt's Dictionary of Trade and Commerce.

POPULATION RETURNS.

No branch of Political Economy has engaged more attention, and none is nore deserving of it. The various questions regarding this interesting subject, have been fully discussed by modern political writers; and much acrimony and keenness have been enlisted in the controversy. The belief that it was in the power, and perhaps therefore the duty, of a Government to regulate the increase of its people, has been one reason why the subject has excited so much interest, and the strong positions assumed by one party, have been met by counter-statements of an equally positive character by the other. From its insular position, and rapidly increasing population, this controversy seems to have been carried on more bitterly in England than elsewhere; and Godwin, Malthus and Sadler, have each in their turns, been the champions of the different views which supported their own theories. The controversy has, by this time, subsided, and general belief seems to coincide with the views of Malthus, in his philosophical and elegant essay on population; and without intending to awaken its slumbering fires, we would, before making some observations on the population returns of this country, wish to dissent from some of the positions he maintains.

Mr. Malthus endeavours to prove, that while the fruits of the earth advance, or increase, only in an Arithmetical ratio, the tendency of population is to increase in a Mathematical ratio. We believe we state his position fairly, and as thus stated, it contains two erroneous assumptions. The first is, that there is any ratio in the increase, or decrease, of population and agriculture; and the second, that a tendency involves a certainty.

As to the first:—The application of the term ratio, requires that the causes which determine the alteration in the number of the inhabitants, or in the amount of food, be accurately determined. A ratio of quantities, which are variable, conveys no idea, unless the variation also depends upon known laws, and maintains the relation between the quantities, always unimpaired. But if one quantity may, from indirect causes, be affected, while the other remains unaltered, it is evident that no ratio, or necessary proportion, can exist between them. And in this we find the error alluded to in the previous chapter, of attempting to deduce logical arguments from arithmetical statements, for, in truth, the facts relating to population cannot be ascertained with mathematical precision. It may be true, that the tendency of population to increase, is greater than of the fruits of the earth to multiply; but this tendency in the one is inherent, in the other it is adventitious; and admitting that the tendency to increase is greater than an arithmetical ratio would account for, that, by no means, proves that it must be in a mathematical ratio.

As to the term tendency, in the second place, it is

quite inadmissable when applied to established ratios; and must either mean that the proportion which the population and provision of a country maintain, is uniform, or it must mean that it is variable. To say that it has only a tendency to be uniform, is, in other words, to say that it may vary, and, unless the term is used in the first sense, the whole foundation, as a mathematical proposition must fall to the ground.

We, by no means, deny the position of Mr. Malthus, if confined to a general statement, when we think the term tendency may be properly introduced as conveying the impression of a variable law which may prompt the population to outrun the means of subsistence; but not when it is looked upon as a fixed law, and reduced to an arithmetical equation.

From another erroneous position (if so we may venture to term it) of Mr. Malthus, that "agriculture is the efficient cause of population, not population of agriculture," we are led to consider Mr. Everett's new theory on the subject, who argues, with apparent truth, that the amount of disposable labour keeping pace with the increase of population, the effect of this principle will be felt, in the first instance, upon the agricultural interest; and that, in a state of greater civil advancement, the increase of skill will counteract the tendency which otherwise the population might have to outrun the means of subsistence. "The economical effect of an increase of population is an augmentation in the supply of labour, and in the demand for its products. The wants of the newcomers create the new demand, and their labour furnishes the new supply. These principles are too ob-

vious to require any developement; yet Mr. Malthus seems either not to have perceived them, or not to have kept them distinctly in view. He appears throughout his work to consider the increase of population simply in its effect upon the consumption of the means of subsistence, without regarding its operation upon their supply. He views every individual added to society as an additional consumer, without appearing to reflect that he is also at the same time an additional labourer. This consideration alone, if properly estimated, is sufficient, I think, to rectify the whole theory of this writer, and to refute its paradoxical and dangerous parts."*

But however interesting and useful these speculations may be, we must, at present, confine our attention to the practical question of the census of the United States, and, after alluding to the efforts which have been made abroad to procure returns of the inhabitants, we shall give a sketch of the progress of inquiry in this country, and conclude with some observations on the next enumeration of the population.

Under the Roman Government, we have most ample details of the steps taken to procure an accurate census of the people, and a valuation of their property. Servius Tullius instituted the census to be taken every five years, to ascertain the number of the people, and the fortunes of each individual; and he ordained that all the Roman citizens, both in town and country, should, upon oath, take an estimate of their fortunes, and publicly declare that estimate to him; and that they should also tell the place of their

* New Ideas on Population, with remarks on the theories of Malthus and Godwin, by Alexander Everett—Boston, 1823, p. 21.

abode, the names of their wives and children; and their own age, and that of their children; and the number of their slaves and freedmen; and if they did otherwise, their goods should be confiscated, and themselves scourged and sold for slaves, as persons who had deemed themselves unworthy of liberty. How invaluable to the Roman historian would such a return now be, and how fully would it have exposed the domestic condition of that people; and here we remark how intimately they associated publicity and freedom of investigation, with their liberty and rights of citizenship.

In France no regular census was taken until 1817, 27 years after this country had set the example. The mode then observed was to take the residents in the habitation where each resided, and then to proceed with great despatch. In the city of Paris, in 40 days, 700,000 out of the total population of 717,212, were obtained; of 657,172 names known, there were 305,247 males, and 351,925 females.*

In England, also, we find no example of an actual census until 1801, eleven years subsequent to the first American enumeration. A Bill was introduced into Parliament in 1753, for taking a census, but it was not carried into effect, and it was so late as the year 1780, that Dr. Price published his celebrated treatise on annuities, in which he contended that the population of England was decreasing; and that it only amounted to 4,763,000; while subsequent investigation proves that it must have been upwards of seven millions at that period. The disputes to which this estimate of Dr. Price gave rise, were not termi-

* Smithers' Political Economy—p. 203.

nated until the beginning of the present century, when fortunately the British Government established a decimal census to be taken in the year following the census of the United States. One great advantage to be derived from this is, that the British Government have it in their power to assimilate their census in many respects, to the census of this country; and by doing so, greatly to enhance the value of both. It is obvious, that in all matters regarding the longevity, ratio of sexes, and rapidity of increase, it is very desirable to know whether the laws which regulate them, are of universal application; or whether they are local in their influence; and to institute correct comparisons, it is necessary that the classification and distribution of the inhabitants should proceed upon the same principles. It may be a subject of honest pride to this country, that the American census has always been a more accurately and appropriately divided return of the population, than the British Census; as in 1830, in America, the males and females were each divided, according to their ages, into 13 compartments; while in England they were each returned in aggregate. It is to be hoped that the British census for 1841, will be made out with more creditable detail; and it were very desirable that any improvements introduced into the census of this country in 1840, should be copied into that of England in 1841.

In Prussia a census is taken every three years, and an accurate register of births and deaths has been kept since 1820. Some few details respecting the latter, are given in the American Almanac for 1839;

but we are destitute of all particular information of the steps pursued to obtain an accurate census.

It might be well for Government to procure from the foreign Ministers at Washington, or the American Ministers abroad, detailed accounts of the means now pursued in investigating these interesting subjects, as it might throw some light both upon the views which actuate foreign powers, in directing a census to be taken, and the principles which regulate it; and it might also furnish some useful hints for the most convenient mode of arranging the schedules, or condensing the returns.

When we consider the condition of this country at the close of the American War, we cannot but be struck with the boldness of the measure, which based the principle of representation, upon an actual enumeration of the people. At a time when England was ignorant of her strength, and France had not counted her numbers, America embraced a constitution, which declared that "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several states, which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct." Such are the terms of the Constitution, and in conformity with it, we find the enumeration was effected in 1790, and fully completed in

the beginning of 1791. In looking through the correspondence of that period, we find several allusions to the subject, which are remarkable as not expressing any doubt as to the practicability of obtaining the requisite returns. Governor Jay says, "the Census is a subject, about which much might, but little need be said, the observations pertinent to it being obvious;"* and General Washington thus writes Mr. Morris, on the same subject: †"In one of my letters to you, the account of the number of inhabitants, which would probably be found in the United States on enumeration, was too large. This estimate was formed, by the ideas held out by the gentlemen in Congress, of the population of the several States, each of whom, (as was natural) looking through a magnifier, would speak of the greatest extent, to which there was any probability of their numbers reaching. Returns of the census have already been made from several of the States, and a tolerably just estimate has been formed in others, by which it appears, that we shall hardly reach four millions; but this you are to take along with it, that the *real* number will greatly exceed the *official* returns, because from religious scruples, some would not give in their lists; from the apprehension that it was intended as the foundation of a tax, others concealed or diminished theirs; and from the indolence of the mass, and the want of activity in many of the deputy enumerators, numbers are omitted. The authenticated number, will however, be far greater than has been allowed in Europe, and will have no small influence in enabling them to form a more just opinion of our

* Life of John Jay, by his son—ii. 207.
† Sparks' Life of Governeur Morris—vol. ii. p. 141.

present growing importance, than has yet been entertained there." And well might the result of the enumeration excite the attention of Europe, when the amount of population was found to be within less than a million of the *estimated* number of the inhabitants of England. We cannot but regard it as a striking proof of the sanguine temperament of the times, that no doubt was entertained of the practicability of the scheme, and when once effected, all difficulty in the future enumerations disappeared, and we have had now four successive censûs of the inhabitants of the United States.

It is gratifying to remark the gradual improvement which has taken place in the censûs since 1790. It may be better to append the formula in use, at each enumeration of the inhabitants, to exhibit the alterations that have succesively been made, and it is earnestly to be hoped that no retrogade movement will ever be sanctioned.

Census of 1790.

Free white Males, 16 years old and upwards.	Free white Males, under 16 years.	Free white Females.	All other free Persons.	Slaves.	Total Number.

Census of 1800 *and* 1810.

FREE WHITE MALES.					FREE WHITE FEMALES.					All other free Persons, except Indians not taxed.	Slaves	Total Number.
Under 10 years.	Of 10 and under 16.	Of 16 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45	Of 45 and upwards.	Under 10 years.	Of 10 and under 16.	Of 16 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards.			

Census of 1820.

FREE WHITE MALES.						FREE WHITE FEMALES.					MALE SLAVES.				FEMALE SLAVES.				FREE COLOUR'D MALES.				FREE COLOUR'D FEMALES.				All free Persons, except Indians, not taxed.	Total
Under 10 years.	Of 10 and under 16.	Between 16 and 18.	Of 16 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards.	Under 10 years.	Of 10 and under 16.	Of 16 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards.	Under 14 years	Of 14 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards.	Under 14 years	Of 14 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards.	Under 14 years	Of 14 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards.	Under 14 years.	Of 14 and under 26.	Of 26 and under 45.	Of 45 and upwards		

Census of 1830.

FREE WHITES.																														
MALES.													FEMALES.													INCLUDED IN THE FOREGOING.				
Under 5 years.	5 and under 10	Above 10 and under 15.	15 under 20	Of 20 under 30.	Of 30 under 40.	Of 40 under 50.	Of 50 under 60.	Of 60 under 70.	Of 70 under 80.	Of 80 under 90.	Of 90 under 100.	Of 100 and upwards.	Under 5 years	5 under 10.	10 under 15.	15 under 20.	20 under 30.	30 under 40.	40 under 50.	50 under 60.	60 under 70.	70 under 80	80 under 90.	90 under 100.	100 and upwards.	Deaf and dumb unde. 14.	" " above 14 & under 25.	" " " above 25.	Blind.	Aliens.

Census of 1830, *continued.*

SLAVES.												FREE COLOURED PERSONS.													Slaves and coloured persons included in the foregoing.			
MALES.						FEMALES.						MALES.						FEMALES.										
Under 10 years.	10 under 24.	24 under 36.	Of 36 under 55.	Of 55 under 100.	100 and upwards.	Under 10 years.	Of 10 under 24.	24 under 36.	36 under 55.	55 under 100.	100 and upwards.	Under 10 years.	10 under 24.	24 under 36.	36 under 55.	55 under 100.	100 and upwards.	Under 10 years.	Of 10 under 24.	24 under 36.	36 under 55.	55 under 100.	100 and upwards.	Total.	Deaf and Dumb under 14	Do. do. above 14 Do. do. under 25	Do. do. above 25	Blind.

In the census of 1790, the males were divided into two classes; the females, slaves, and free blacks each comprised in one class.

The census of 1800, and 1810, are exactly alike; the males and the females being each divided into five columns, the free blacks and slaves each into one.

The census of 1820, differs only from the enumeration above, in the classification of the whites,—in having those of the males between the ages of 16 and 18, separately reckoned; while there is a decided improvement in the distribution of the coloured population, the male and female of both the free and slave inhabitants being apportioned into four classes.

The census of 1830, retains all these improvements, and adds many additional divisions, which makes the enumeration of the inhabitants of the

United States, as far as the ages of the people are concerned, a very satisfactory document. In this year, both the males and females are divided into thirteen columns, being enumerated quinquennially till the age of 20, and after that at decimal periods. The coloured population is divided first into four classes: male and female slaves, male and female free coloured persons, being each separated into six columns.

Such is a short statement of what has been done by the American government, and in remarking with satisfaction upon the improvement exhibited in the last census, (1830,) we must with well-grounded assurance, remember that the individual, who then, as secretary of State effected these additions, now occupies a higher office, and the student and the politician may alike expect his co-operation in any scheme of amendment.

Of the political objects of the census, it is not our intention to speak, as nothing else is required by the constitution, than a simple enumeration of all the classes of individuals, residing within the limits of any of the states or territories, by which to determine the ratio of representation to which each is entitled.

But fortunately the American Government soon took a higher view of the inquiries which should be instituted regarding the condition of her population, and the successive improvements, as exhibited above, fully evince the most enlightened spirit. So complete does the enumeration last made seem to us, and so accurate is the manner in which, after a pretty close examination, we may say it is printed, that few sug-

gestions occur to us, of any alterations necessary, and our only hope is, that the next census may equal the preceding, in exactness and in detail.

In the census for 1820, it will be observed, that all youths between 16 and 18, are separately enumerated; which, as showing more accurately the numbers capable of serving in the militia, and as being useful in discriminating between the adults and youths engaged in manufacture, we would recommend, that a column re-enumerating those between 15 and 18, should be inserted, in the census of 1840, as it was omitted in the last census. Should this be adopted, it might be considered the age, on either side of which, men and boys should respectively be arranged. The subject is of no great importance, but might be serviceable; and of course would be executed on the same principles as it was done on the previous occasion.

Again, by reference to the above schedule, it will be seen that the coloured persons from the age of 10 to 24—from 24 to 36—from 36 to 55—are each included in a separate column. Now we are unable to understand the advantages of this arrangement; and, on the other hand, it strikes us as singularly inappropriate, and we are convinced that scarcely any divisions could have been adopted, which would have been more unsatisfactory. It effectually prevents all comparison with the white population at different periods, for after the age of 10, the divisions in no instance agree. This is much to be regretted, for from some very interesting facts regarding the coloured population, elucidated by the New-York Bills of Mortality for 1838, it would seem that the

two races follow different laws as to their diseases, and the proportion of sexes at death at different periods, and therefore it were very desirable to examine their condition at the different ages of enumeration. But this it is impossible to do, and we regard it as the more to be regretted, as we cannot see that any information is gained to compensate for this inability of instituting a comparison. If it is considered better that the returns of the coloured race should be more condensed than those of the white, (and we think it were proper that it should be so) let them be divided into two decimal periods till the age of twenty, and after that, into four equal divisions until the age of one hundred, (viz.: under 10—from 10 to 20—from 20 to 40—from 40 to 60—from 60 to 80—from 80 to 100—and 100 and upwards,) which is only one division more than the present arrangement, and would be infinitely more serviceable.

With these simple suggestions, we dismiss the subject of the population returns, intending under the head of *vital statistics*, to recur to those collateral topics, such as ratio of increase, proportion of sexes, and proportion of births and deaths, which might otherwise have occupied a place here. It is exceedingly satisfactory to find that our remarks are circumscribed by the complete and ample nature of the present returns, which, if corrected in the divisions of the coloured race, and the addition of one column in the enumeration of the white males, we would consider as ample as any occasion would require. And it is much to be desired, that no alterations should be introduced, as one principal feature of the statistical value of the census, is to be able to com-

pare the progress of the population at the several epochs of enumeration. From the improvements introduced into the census of 1830, all comparisons with that of 1820, are rendered impossible, as in the latter, the white population is divided in every instance, after the age of 10, into a different arrangement from that of the former; and therefore we cannot ascertain the results which a direct comparison would exhibit,—as, for instance, Mr. Booth dwells much on the principle, an exceedingly obvious one, that the number living in 1830, between the ages of 30 and 40, will, when contrasted with those living between the ages of 20 and 30, in the previous census, (1820,) exhibit the mortality which has occurred in the interval, if due allowance be made for the amount of immigration. Such, and many similar comparisons, would be exceedingly interesting and useful; and while the more perfect nature of the latest returns do not make us regret, that it is impossible to institute them with former censûs, we hope that nothing will be introduced into the next enumeration, to prevent the most ample elucidation of all the collateral subjects.

PRODUCTS OF MANUFACTURES AND ARTS.

In no branch of statistical inquiries is minute attention to the preliminary details of acquiring information more necessary, and in no department is it more difficult. When we consider the marvellous distribution of the works of manufacture, the various combinations which are required to render them available, the difficulty of separating them into distinct classes, and the tendency which these classes have to ramify into minute subdivisions, it is easy to foresee that any general classification must be a work of great nicety. And without a general classification of returns, it is impossible to arrive at any satisfactory result; for the same species of manufacture may be classed under different heads, in different sections of the country, and if no general rule is adopted for estimating their value, it is impossible to reduce the various returns to one standard of value. But if the subject is surrounded with difficulties, it is also fraught with peculiar interest. To watch the rise and progress of a nation's internal economy, to see the various channels which divert its enterprize, to remove

the obstacles which impede the natural progress of improvement, and to note the advantageous results which invariably flow from well directed efforts, is at once the highest duty of a government and the interesting study of the statist. There are some who suppose that the prosperity of manufactures will proceed more certainly if unnoticed; and who think the question is one of purely individual interest, to be determined upon the common principle of profit and loss, and one therefore about which government should not interest itself. But the more correct picture of the condition of domestic industry is to conceive it as strongly resembling the human constitution, as requiring the fostering hand of the parent during its infancy, and if in after life it is to be left more to the guidance of its own acquired impetus, it is at the same time to be restrained within judicious bounds.

It is rather a difficult thing to give a simple and concise definition of the term "Manufactures," for although it conveys readily to the mind the general impression that it is the perfecting of raw materials, yet that is not the sense in which the statist uses it. The settler in the woods who splits up a chestnut log may be called a manufacturer of rails, but the more proper definition and one which we would wish to adopt would be "the fabrication for *wholesale trade* of any species of raw material." In all countries there are many species of domestic industry which it is impossible to form any correct estimate of, in the absence of excise laws, and even then the information is necessarily imperfect, as the trifling character of the occupation when subdivided

into the separate amount performed by each family, is so small as almost to escape detection, for instance, the knitting of stockings in winter, the making of candles, or cider, are all of a class which elude the grasp of the statist and can only be estimated by approximation. All domestic manufactures we would therefore exclude from this return, and in excluding also the retail trader, we would be guided by the same motive. It is impossible to get any accurate report of the value of articles manufactured in the way of retail trade, as the number of returns and the minute divisions which they would require to be extended to, would entirely frustrate the end in view. For instance, if a village shoemaker is called a manufacturer, what sort of return can he make, he knows not how many boots he has made, nor the value of those he has repaired, but working for minute gains he does not keep accurate accounts of the progress of his business. On the whole therefore we believe that the term manufacture ought strictly to be applied to articles intended for *wholesale or export trade*, and that those avocations which merely supply the locality where they are made are more properly the product of trades than manufactures.

Limiting therefore the term manufactures to the definition above given, we have a most important subject for consideration, and one in which the greatest care will be necessary to extract from the marshals, the requisite returns. We have stated above the necessity of having the returns adapted to one standard for the purpose of classification and comparison, and to effect this, there are certain general principles which must be kept in view. In nothing

is the maxim *in medio tutissimus ibis* more necessary than in conducting investigations of this kind, as the information required must neither be so minute and particular as to be vexatious and difficult of collection, nor so vague and general as to be without any real utility.

A uniform schedule ought to be furnished, by which the reports are to be returned to the department.

The classification should be so general as to include all manufactures of nearly a similar description.

The schedules should be so framed that all the answers may be made by numerals.

No more returns should be ordered than are necessary to obtain a satisfactory and distinct view of the state of the country.

We believe that any one accustomed to statistical studies will at once acquiesce in the correctness of these principles, as no general information can be acquired when they are disregarded. Without wishing to throw any blame upon the venerable author of the returns in 1820, it is remarkable that in no particular do they agree with the principles laid down, and it is to their departure from them that we attribute the failure of that investigation. In the letter of instructions distributed by Mr. Adams to the marshals, after enumerating the divisions which were to be followed in regard to age, we find the following general classification. "The discrimination between persons engaged in agriculture, commerce and manufactures will not be without its difficulties. No inconsiderable portion of the population will probably be found, the individuals of which being asked to

which of these classes they belong will answer all three. Yet it is obviously not the intention of the legislature that any individual should be included in more than one of them; of those whose occupations are exclusively agricultural or commercial there can seldom arise a question, and in the column of manufacturers will be included not only all the persons employed in what the art more specifically denominates manufacturing establishments, but all those artificers, handicrafts-men and mechanics whose labour is pre-eminently of the hand and not upon the field."

"Besides this enumeration of manufactures, the marshals and their assistants are required, by the tenth section of the act to take an account of the several *manufacturing establishments and their manufactures*, within their several districts, territories and divisions, and the meaning of the legislature by this provision, is illustrated by the clause in the oaths of the marshals and their assistants, that they will take an account of the manufactures, *except household manufactures*, from which it seems fairly deducible that in the intention of the legislature persons employed only upon household manufactures are not to be included in the column of persons bearing that denomination, the occupation of manufacturing being in such cases only incidental and not the profession properly marking the class of society to which such individual belongs. This then affords a criterion by which your assistants may select the column of occupation to which each individual may be set down, viz: to that which is the principal and not the occasional or incidental occupation of his life."

"Among the papers enclosed is an alphabetical list

of manufactures which may facilitate the labours of your assistants, but which they will not consider as complete. It is intended to give a direction to their inquiries and each of them will add to it every manufacture not included in it, and of which he takes account within his division. A printed form is likewise enclosed of inquiries to be made in relation to manufacturing establishments, on a sheet of paper on which the information requested may be written and returned." Although rather long we subjoin the list of queries referred to and also the list of manufactures, for the purpose of showing the principles upon which these inquiries were conducted, and we believe it will at the same time convince the reader that the failure of these returns is rather to be attributed to the want of adequate means being taken to procure them than to any inherent difficulties in obtaining the information.*†

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* *Questions to be addressed to the persons concerned in Manufacturing Establishments, by the Marshals and their Assistants in taking the amount of Manufactures:—*

Raw Materials employed,....	1. The kind. 2. The quantity consumed. 3. The cost of annual consumption.
Number of persons employed,	4. Men. 5. Women. 6. Boys and Girls.
Machinery,.....	7. Whole quantity and kind of Machinery. 8. Quantity of Machinery in operation.
Expenditures,.....	9. Amount of Capital invested. 10. Amount annually paid for Wages. 11. Amount of contingent expenses.
Production,.....	12. Nature and names of Articles manufactured. 13. Market value of Articles annually manufactured. 14. General remarks as to the establishment, as to its actual and past condition, the demand for and sale of its manufactures.

† *An Alphabetical List of Manufactures.*

Ale	Brass, in sheets	Buttons	Carts
Alum	Brass manufactures	Cabinet ware	Cheese
Anchors	Brazing copper	Cables	Chocolate
Ashes—pot and pearl	Bread — ship, pilot crackers, &c.	Calico prints	Cider
Beef	Bricks	Candles—wax and tallow, spermaceti	Clocks
Beer	Bridles	Canes	Clothing—ready-made
Bells	Brimstone	Cannon	Coaches, chaises, all sorts of carriages
Belts for soldiers	Bristles	Cards—playing	Coals
Blacksmiths' work	Brushes	" —wool and cotton	Combs
Blank books	Buckles	Carpets	Coopers' work
Boats	Butter	Cartouch boxes	
Bottles			

When it is remembered that the onus of taking the census is thrown upon the Secretary of State in addition to his other arduous duties, it is not to be wondered at that the schedules prepared by him should exhibit a vague and undefined arrangement, especially when it is considered that purely statistical studies are not commonly the most interesting to men of talents, and may be classed rather among the subordinate than principal qualifications for a federal office. It is not every mind that loves to collate and consider the various returns which can be procured throughout an extensive country, to arrange and classify these, detect the errors and deduce the results, and the wri-

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Alphabetical List of Manufactures—continued.

Copper buttons, and other manufactures of copper
Cordage—tarred and untarred
Corks
Cotton manufactures
" yarn
Crockery ware
Cutlery
Drugs
Duck
Dye stuffs
Earthen ware
Embroideries
Engravings.
Essences
Fancy chairs
Feathers
Fire arms
Fire engines
Fire wood
Flax
Floor cloths
Flour
Fringes
Fruits—preserved
Fur trimmings
Gilt wares
Glass ware
Gloves—silk, cotton, and leather
Glue
Gold, silver and plated ware
Grindstones
Gunpowder
Hair cloths
Hair powder
Hams
Hardware
Harness
Hats
Hearth rugs
Hemp
Hempen goods
Houses
Ink
Ink powder
Ink stands
Iron ware
Iron—wrought and cast
Japanned ware
Jewelry
Lace—gold and silver
Leather—tanned, tawed, and dressed
Lime
Linens, and other manufactures of flax
Looking glasses
Lumber—scanting and shingles
Malt
Maps and charts
Marble chimney piers
Mathematical instruments
Mercury
Millinery
Mill machinery
Morocco leather
Muffs and tippets
Musical instruments
Muskets and bayonets
Mustard
Nails
Needles
Oil cloths
Oils
Painters' colours
Paintings
Paints
Paper hangings
Paper—writing, printing, and wrapping.
Parasols
Parchment
Pasteboard
Pastework
Pencils
Pens
Perfumery
Pewter ware
Pickles
Pins
Pocket books
Porcelain
Pork
Porter
Potter's ware
Printed books
Printing presses
Printing types
Quills
Raw silk
Refined sugar
Rosin
Rum
Saddles
Sail cloth
Salt
Saltpetre
Satin
Sculptured work
Sealing wax
Segars
Sewing silk
Ships and vessels
Shot
Shoes, boots, and other manufactures of leather.
Side arms
Silks
Silk shoes and slippers
Skins
Slates
Snuff
Soap
Spinners' work
Spirits
Stained paper
Starch
Stationery
Staves
Steam engines
Steel manufactured
Steel, unwrought
Stockings—silk, cotton, thread and worsted
Stone cutting, manuf.
Stone ware
Straw manufactures
Sugar
Tallow
Tapistry
Tar and pitch
Thread
Tiles
Tin ware
Tobacco manuf.
Toys
Trunks
Turners' ware in ivory, bone and wood.
Turpentine
Twine and pack thread
Umbrellas
Upholstery
Varnish
Vellum
Vitriol
Wagons
Walking sticks
Watches
Wheelwrights' work
Whips
Whiskey
Window glass
Windsor chairs
Wood
Wooden ware
Woollen manufactures

ter who does so, occupies the relation to the statesman which the compiler of a dictionary does to a man of letters. In making some few observations therefore upon the errors committed in framing these tables, and that there was an error the defective returns prove, we hope that we will not be accused of wishing to impute unnecessary blame, but simply to have the reason

Amphora cœpit
Institui; currente rotâ cur urceus exit?

1st. No uniform schedule having been furnished by the department, the mass of information procured in accordance with the instructions above quoted, is of so vague and discursive a character that no general results can be deduced from it. There are many most interesting features in the "digest of accounts of Manufactures in the United States," accompanying the census, but the total want of arrangement and classification render them valueless, and the indefinite terms used to designate several interesting subjects render such classification impossible. It is true that the list of queries given above have formed the basis of a table into which the information procured has in the department of state been moulded, but the answers so rarely apply to the whole of the queries, in general not being more than half filled up, that it is easy to see that the form of a list of questions to be verbally answered by the individual, and to be noted down according to the discretion of the reporter without any distinct classification to guide him is too indefinite to be truly useful. We select at random on account of its shortness, the return from Kent county, Delaware, by which the vagueness of the answers will be plainly seen.

Kent County, District of Delaware.

Nature and name of article manufactured.	Market value of the article annually manuf.	The kind of raw material employed.	The quantity of raw material annually consumed.	The cost of raw material annually consumed.	Men employed.	Women employed.	Boys and Girls employed.	whole quantity & kind of machinery.	quantity of machinery in operation.	Amount of capital invested.	Amount paid annually for wages.	Amount of contingent expenses.
Flour,	$ 650	Wheat,	..	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Leath'r	13,200	Skins, Hides,	..	$12,800	10	..	..	..	..	..	..	3 tanneries.

In this table so utterly defective, we find 6 men are engaged in the county in making about 80 bushels of wheat into flour, and that 10 men are employed in 3 tanneries, whose sole emoluments must consist in the difference between the value of the raw material used, and of the manufactured article produced, or $400, no allowance being made for the value of the tan pits, or bark employed, or other contingent expenses. We do not analyze this return as a fair specimen, but having selected it for its brevity, we cannot withhold these comments. We have no doubt but that the reduction of the returns to the form of the above extract was a work of great labour, and can only regret that the information obtained, is not commensurate with the task. By the adoption of a uniform schedule, this labour would have been avoided, and at first sight any defect in the return would have been detected, and instant measures might have been taken to remedy it, whereas the form in which these answers were sent in, was necessarily so complicated, that no defect could be detected till they were reduced to a tabular form, when probably the lapse of time, and hurry of the census for publication, would pre-

vent the return being sent back for correction. This brings us to the

2d Consideration, the principle upon which the classification should proceed. We are aware that under this head, the statist must consider the amount of remuneration the deputies are to receive; as the great object to be attained is accuracy rather than minuteness, and in the returns before us, we find that want of proper and adequate compensation is alleged as the cause of the great defects, "the compensation allowed by law was esteemed so inadequate for the service required, that it has been found impossible to obtain competent assistants to undertake them." In framing the list of queries, this should have been a matter of consideration with the Secretary, and he ought to have limited the amount of labour he required, to the amount of remuneration previously fixed by law. Having settled this, the next point is to arrange the great interests of the country in such a way that the returns may elucidate their relative importance. Now in the returns before us, we by no means think that this has been the case, for setting aside the objection which might justly we think be raised to an alphabetical arrangement, we cannot but be struck with the undue importance given to some minor trades, and almost total silence regarding manufactures of national importance. The whole woollen trade of the country, with the exception of carpets and stockings, is classed under the general term "Woollen Manufactures;" while it is perhaps the most valuable trade to the nation as well as the most difficult accurately to estimate; whereas on the other hand we find pickles, preserved fruits, chocolate and

mustard, each separately enumerated as among the manufactures of the country. Now we do not object to the most minute details being inquired into, if the arrangements to perfect such information are adequate, but we cannot approve of such trivial subjects being inserted, while more prominent manufactures such as zinc, newspapers, &c. are altogether omitted. And again in the list above given of manufactures, we find the terms, beef, pork, and coal inserted, which cannot be considered manufactures, being agricultural and mineral products, and if they are to be included, on what principles are fish, iron and gold omitted? But we believe we have said enough to show that the arrangement is defective, and as we shall recur to the subject again, when proposing a more convenient one, we pass now to the

3d Consideration, viz: that the schedules should be so framed as to permit of being answered in numerals. The advantage of such an arrangement is easily stated, and will be readily perceived. When the deputies are permitted to enter words in the body of the table, they are apt to express themselves indefinitely for the purpose of using shorter terms, and the simplicity of detail is much retarded when there is no uniformity in the return. It is only necessary to look at the tables referred to, to see the confusion that arises from the arrangement, and one instance will suffice, where the different articles used in a manufacture are described as "olive oil, soda, tallow, barilla, aromatic oils, potash, pearl-ash, palm oil, vermillion, carmine, turmeric, alcohol, smalt, copperas, &c.," which are all used for manufacturing fancy soap. If a judicious classification be followed, it may be so

arranged that the reporter has only to insert in some particular column the amount of article wished to be expressed under a head appropriated to it. And

Lastly, the number of returns required should be as few as possible, if the desired amount of information be obtained; the observations we have already made on the redundancy of the above table are sufficient at present on this subject, and we think that while the positions above taken are simple and satisfactory, the returns ordered by the Secretary, by no means accord with them. Having made these observations on the returns procured by the Secretary in 1820, we will now proceed to the more appropriate business of this chapter, viz: to show on what principles the returns should be ordered, and how schedules might be framed to embrace the requisite information, with sufficient detail, yet without any unnecessary incumbrances. And in the above remarks we almost fear we have ventured too far; when we reflect upon the skill and information of the author of the digest of manufactures, we are inclined to mistrust ourselves, and can only hope that it will not be imputed to arrogance or want of deference on our part, but to an honest desire to promote the work of statistical inquiries in this country.

The first thing to be attended to is the due proportion of the remuneration authorized by law, and the amount of service required to perfect the returns. If this is overlooked, and the number and intricacy of the queries put to the Deputies, so great that they cannot answer them without undue trouble, it cannot be expected that the returns will be characterized by accuracy. If the per capitem method of

payment is adopted in this census, as has been done hitherto, it must be remembered that to double the number of queries to be put to the inhabitants, by no means doubles the labour of the Deputy, as having visited the answerer, the additional trouble of inserting some further answers is very trifling. But on the other hand, some inducement must be held out, to increase the interest generally taken in labours of this kind, and the returns should all be examined and reported upon at Washington, when those which are defective can immediately be transmitted to the district Marshal for correction, and a discretionary power should be left with the department to recompense the Marshals according to the care bestowed upon their returns, by rating them in certain established tariffs. In another part of these observations we purpose alluding to the duties of the Marshals and their remuneration, but here wish merely to refer to the necessary connection between the work performed, and the compensation for the trouble it occasions.

It has been our object in framing the following tables, to select the more prominent objects of national industry, and by arranging them in a succinct manner and adapting a few leading queries to each separate manufacturer, to afford a ready means of elucidating facts. The number of queries which we have put, might have been much increased, and much more accurate and minute information might have been aimed at, but perhaps the remuneration likely to be awarded for the trouble incurred, will not warrant a more extended list of queries. Should the department think that the compensation would

warrant more minute returns, it will be easy to extend the tables we subjoin, for we have gone on the principle, that it is far more difficult to condense than to amplify, and have preferred the briefest schedule which would be satisfactory, to a more ample and extended table of all the collateral subjects connected with each trade.

The general arrangement which is followed, exhibit a sufficiently connected view of the various leading manufactures in this country, using that term in its most extended meaning. It begins with the

Product of Mines.

Iron—the *ore* in its different manufactures.
Gold
Lead
Other Metals
Salt—the manufacture of, from brine, &c.
Coal—bituminous, the produce of mines in the U. S.
" Anthracite

Manufacture of the Metals.

Iron—the various leading uses of this metal.
Various metals
Precious metals

Manufactures on the Loom.

Cotton,
Wool,
Hemp or Flax,
Silk,
Mixture of above materials.

General Manufacture of

Hats,
Leather,
Soap and Candles.
Distilled and fermented liquors,
Glass and earthenware,
Sugar,
Paper,
Cables and Cordage,
Drugs—paints, &c.
Pleasure Carriages.

Such is the general arrangement which might be adopted, and which would enable the Marshals to classify each branch of industry under its appropriate head, and having effected this, we hope the accompanying schedules will be found to coincide with the four general principles we referred to, the importance of which are, we think, sufficiently illustrated in the remarks on the census of 1820.

In the accompanying tables the leading queries, though they vary to conform to the actual condition of each trade, refer *first*, to the number of establishments for carrying on any particular work, as from this return we will be able to find the comparative size of the establishments in different parts of the country, and the tendency which certain trades have to "centralize" themselves into large manufactures.

Secondly, The value of the raw material used in the manufacture, which must include the outlay of the manufacturer for all material used in the construction of the article he produces, and here we

must introduce some very correct remarks of McCulloch:

"It is supposed by many that whatever may be the annual value of our manufactured goods, we shall, by adding it to the annual value of our agricultural products, get the total value of the new commodities annually produced in the empire. But this is an error. The value of the British wool, for example, employed in the woollen manufacture may amount to from £5,500,000 to £6,000,000, and forms an item of this amount in estimating the value of the manufacture. It is plain however, that if we include this wool in any estimate of the agricultural produce of the country we must exclude it from its manufactured produce, for if we do not it will be reckoned twice over. The same thing happens in a vast variety of cases. Again, very many manufactured articles, such as beer, spirits, coaches, &c., consist principally of other manufactured articles, the value of which must necessarily be deducted to learn the new or additional value which the peculiar manufacture adds to the wealth of the country.—Hence the extreme difficulty of forming any fair estimate of the real value of any species of manufactures. It is necessary in order to specify the nett addition made by any manufacture to the mass of valuable products, to detach from it the value of the raw produce and the other manufactured articles embodied in it."—*Statistical account of the British Empire, Vol. II. p.* 139.

Thirdly, The value of the product—or in other words, the market value of the article manufactured, *at the nearest market*, which would embrace the

whole returns which the manufacturer receives as the product of his labour, on all descriptions of articles.

Fourthly, No. of persons engaged in the manufacture. In some of the trades it is advisable to apportion the work people into three classes, males, females, persons under 15—all others being included in the other classes. Fifteen is perhaps too young an age to include the number of boys, but as the general census makes a division at that age it will be found advisable to do so here also. In addition to the information which we have included in the schedules there are two branches of inquiry which we would like to pursue, the one is the *rate of wages*, the other the aggregate time of work in a year; we have thought it better to omit these, doubtful whether they would be satisfactorily answered, but if they are inserted they would add much to the value of the returns, and enable the statesman to contrast the different manufactures in this country with those in foreign parts, and to trace the effects which different wages and a different climate exercise—by the aggregate time we mean the whole number of days' work performed in each manufactory.

Fifthly, Invested Capital. Under this head much latitude must be allowed, as it is impossible to get accurate returns from men, who are anxious perhaps to conceal their real capital either from a fear of taxation, or of having their limited means made known; but generally it would embrace all the money laid out in land, buildings, machinery, and other similar expenses.

Of Mines and Minerals.

I. First in the order of manufactures stands the production of any raw material from the magazines of nature, where the skill of man is only required to appropriate the wealth stored up for his use. It is to the mineral wealth of Britain that we must look for the elements of her prosperity, and if the same prosperity does not follow in this country the possession of a large extent of hoarded treasure, it must arise from other causes than the physical difficulty of rendering it available. In no country under heaven, is it believed, that greater resources present themselves, as all the necessary accompaniments of mining operations exist in abundance; and the fuel, the water power, the native and conveniently situated ore, the water carriage, and the demand, alike call for increased exertions, in this most certain means of adding to a nation's wealth. A knowledge of the mineral wealth existing in this country is likely to be soon laid before the public by the different geological surveys at present in operation; and the value of material produced, the amount of labor expended, and other serviceable information, may easily be procured in the course of taking the census.

1. *Iron.* "No one," says Cleaveland, "who examines the universal and abundant diffusion of iron, the most important of the metals, can disregard so strong an indication of the benevolence of the Creator." It were out of place here to do more than refer to the extent of the manufacture of this metal in this country, though the immense na-

tional benefit which might result from some extensive experiments on the possibility of preparing the metal from the ore by means of anthracite coal, naturally attracts our attention. The quality of iron seems to depend, more upon the fuel used in its reduction, than upon any inherent character in the ore, and it is believed that no iron is superior to that produced in this country, though the expense of production is such as to enable foreign iron to interfere greatly with the manufacture, in spite of a heavy rate of duty. The iron made in this country is generally the product of charcoal, or as it is termed in the country "coal," and this used formerly to be the only fuel used in England, and is still employed in the manufacture of the Swedish and Russian iron. In England, the rapid consumption of the timber caused great alarm, and the exportation of iron was prohibited at one time, till in 1740 a method of preparing the bituminous coal for the purpose of smelting iron was revived, and since then, prepared coal, or coke, has entirely superseded the use of wood in that country, and rendered available vast resources of national wealth. In this country the fear of the failure of the supply of timber is not likely to create alarm, though on the banks of navigable streams or near water carriage, the supply is rapidly diminishing, but the expense of this mode of preparing the metal is such as to prohibit the manufacture of iron for the common purposes of trade, and its superior quality alone enables it to maintain its place in the market. There are natural depots of the most valuable ore in juxtaposition with immense and inexhaustible beds of natural fuel, which only require the fostering

hand of Government and the aid of chemical science, to enable their produce to bear down all foreign competition, and perhaps even to enter the commercial world as a competitor in foreign markets. The mineral products of Pennsylvania are so immense that no calculation can be made of what they might yield if any means of fusing the ore with anthracite coal could be discovered, and it is an object well worthy of the attention of Government, as the nature of the required experiments are such as preclude accurate investigation by individuals, and would perhaps require a considerable outlay before the proper mode of burning the fuel, the proper flux, and the due proportions of the ore could be discovered; and there is no object which could more properly be called a national one.

It is easy to speculate what the iron trade in this country might become, it is difficult, we may add impossible, at present to say what it is. Before the revolution, the manufacture of iron was one of the few branches of industry which prevailed, and since that period the greatest exertions have been required to sustain it. We give from three sources, estimates of the condition of this important manufacture which will too readily show the utter impossibility of ascertaining its present condition. "There were in 1810, no less than 530 furnaces, forges and bloomeries in the United States, of which 69 were in the State of New York."* Turning next to the journal of the New York Convention, in 1831, a work which rather inclines to overstate than to

* Dr. Beck's Address before the Society for the Promotion of Useful Arts, Albany, 1813.

under estimate the amount of manufactures, we find the following tables as a fair exhibition of the state of the iron trade.

From partial returns the Committee estimate the quantity of Iron made in the United States, as follows:—

Years.	Furnaces.	Tons of Pig Iron.	Tons of Castings.	Total Pig Iron and Castings.
1828	192	90 368	33,036	123,404
1829	192	98,234	36,720	134,954
1830	202	118,620	36,728	155,348

General recapitulation of the Iron Trade in 1831.

	By the Report.	Supplementary Returns.	Total.
Bar Iron made in the U. S.,..... tons	96,621	16,245	112,866
Pig Iron, whole quantity being computed as such,.....	163,542	27,994	191,536
Value,.....	..	..	$13,329,760
Men employed,.....No.	24,979	..	
Annual Wages,.....	..	..	8,776,420

And to complete the contradiction which these reports present, we have the returns made in 1835, at the time the census of the State of New York was taken, which represent the condition of this trade as being at that time,

Iron Manufacture in the State of New-York, in 1835.

No. of Iron Works,.....	293
Value of Raw Material,.....	$2,366,065
Value of Manufacture,.....	4,349,949

in that state. From these contradictory statements nothing satisfactory can be gleaned, and it were much to be desired that the value and activity of this manufacture were properly appreciated. There can be no real difficulty in procuring the returns from every furnace of the amount of iron made, and cost of making it, with other particulars comprised in the table which we subjoin,—which would present a complete and satisfactory view of this source of wealth. Any further observations on this subject would be out of

place at present and only swell unnecessarily the length of this head, we therefore conclude by giving an interesting estimate of the consumption caused by the manufacture of each ton of iron. It is taken from the report of the convention already referred to, but with what accuracy it is made, it is impossible to determine.

Estimate of the Consumption occasioned by the Manufacture of each Ton of Iron.

20 Bushels Wheat and Rye at	75 cents	$15 00
57 lbs. Pork	5 "	2 85
43 lbs. Beef	4 "	1 72
10 lbs. Butter	12½ "	1 25
2 Bushels Potatoes	30 "	0 60
¼ Ton of Hay	$7 00 "	3 50
Tare and ware of horses		1 43
Fruit and vegetables		1 00
		$27 35

The quantity of iron imported, as reported to the Custom House, is as follows:

Import of Iron during the last year 1836–1837.

PIGS	England	127,513	cwt.	$ 203,001
"	Scotland	38,291	"	62,018
BAR	Russia	146,258	"	390,616
"	Sweden	406,637	"	1,222,762
"	Denmark	6,394	"	18,081
"	England	65,098	"	156,308
"	Hanse towns	14,429	"	40,553

Making a total of 658,752 cwt., valued at $1,891,214.

2. *Lead.* Next in importance to the manufacture of iron, stand the Lead Mines in this country, which if not so abundantly diffused, are generally more easily wrought than the former. It is needless again to reiterate that we are in entire ignorance of any details or accurate estimate of the present condition of this manufacture. Valuable lead mines exist in Louisiana, Virginia and Illinois, and extensive and prolific beds of the finest quality of ore have lately been discovered in the northern parts of New York, in addition to the other localities in which it was

formerly known to exist in that State, and several valuable beds occur in New England. But the value of this source of national wealth it is impossible to estimate. The lead mines on the upper Mississippi belong to the General Government, though latterly they have been very much reduced—by sales of land containing the ore, to settlers; but we find that the total amount of lead obtained when they were most productive, was in 1829—14,541,310 lbs. or about (at 6 c.) $872,478. The value of foreign pig, bar, and sheet lead imported into this country in 1837, was $13,871. We believe that the manufacture of this valuable metal is conducted in the most inartificial manner, and that it would be impossible for the Marshals to procure accurate statistics regarding the number of smelting houses in use, as the "diggings" in Illinois are of so temporary a nature, and present so little of a permanent character, as not to be worthy of enumeration. The amount of metal manufactured can however, be ascertained, and the number of persons engaged in the manufacture, together with the average per centage of metal which the ore furnishes, and it may be possible that we are in error in our estimate of the temporary character of the buildings, and that they may also be worthy of enumeration. The following table of the imports of lead from the interior, by the Mississippi river, is taken from Hall's Statistics of the West, and shows the gradual improvement in the production of that article, as of course all the increased consumption in the interior during that period must be deducted.

Import of Lead into New Orleans from the Interior—Hall's Statistics, 278.

	1825	1826	1827	1828	1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834
Lead—pig pigs	58,479	86,242	106,405	183,712	146,203	254,805	151,251	122,933	180,062	203,100
L'd—bar kgs bxs	306	473	1299	471	792	2034	2022	353	2964	429
Lead lbs.	198,244	190 292	..	..	409,641	..	..	245,500	244,000	..

Under this head the production of the crude metal would only be estimated, whether in pigs, bars, or sheets, and the various pigments and other manufactures of lead will be enumerated under another return.

3. *Gold.* The value of this branch of industry can more easily be ascertained than that of either of the other metals, as a large proportion of the native gold is sent to the mint to be assayed or coined. When the project of establishing other coining establishments throughout the country was proposed, Mr. Verplanck, as chairman of a Committee of Congress, tried to procure some information in relation to the infant trade, but the data returned were sufficiently indistinct, and the following answer to a simple query, is not an unfair specimen of the information received.

Query? What amount of gold was found during last year, 1830.

"Ans. I give it as my opinion that it is next to impossible even to approximate the truth in this particular."

In that year the amount was estimated to be about half a million; now, however, it is said that two millions, are produced, and in some parts of the country (Virginia) active operations are in progress to increase the amount. Whether it is an advisable branch of industry, whether it is likely to promote the morals and happiness of the persons engaged in it, or whether from its hazardous character, and

great pecuniary risk it is not likely to unsettle the native population, are questions which we cannot consider, but the details of this source of wealth ought to be laid before the public, in order that they may appreciate its national importance.

4. *Other Metals.* Under this head we would include the several metals which are procured in small quantities in this country, such as Zinc, which occurs in New Jersey, and might be profitably worked to a much greater extent; Copper, which is to be found in Maryland, and was formerly worked to a great extent in New Jersey; Plumbago, which is very generally diffused; Iron pyrites, which was much used in the last war for manufacturing vitriol, and all other metals which are worked to any extent in this country, might be included under this general division.

5. Leaving then the metallic, let us pass on to the mineral produce of mines—Salt. We are again called upon to express our gratitude for the ever-merciful provisions of a kind Providence, as this necessary article is to be found in every part of the country, and forms in some of the states a principal source of revenue. The general government has retained also, in some parts of the west, the salt mines as a source of income, and where the mines are possessed either by the general or a state government, the returns may be more satisfactorily obtained, by a reference to the respective treasurer's books, than an examination by the deputies on the spot,—but there are many works scattered throughout the country wbich it would be highly advantageous to have correctly reported, along with the

average expense of production. There is a species of salt made in the eastern states by evaporation from the sea water, which, although it does not properly fall under this head, may more conveniently be here enumerated. It is carried on to a great extent, and in some of the towns in Massachusetts 800 persons are employed in its manufacture. The expense of this mode of obtaining it will form an interesting comparison with the product of the salt springs in the interior, and it is believed that no rock salt is worked in any part of this country, though it is highly probable that such may be discovered. Notwithstanding, however, the immense number of places where salt abounds in a natural state in this country, there is a very large importation of salt from foreign ports; the amount in 1836 was 5,088,666 bushels, valued at $724,527. There are no means of estimating correctly the consumption of this article throughout the country, which however Mr. Williams in his New York Almanac, 1836, states to be "about 12,000,000 of bushels, which, deducting the importation for that year, would give about 5,000,000 as the production of this country, and two-fifths of the total quantity made in the United States, and over one-sixth of the consumption of the same was produced at the Onondaga Springs in New York State."

6. *Coal.* This mineral substance is naturally divided into

1st. *Bituminous Coal.* Perhaps no country in the world can boast of more extensive coal mines, more widely diffused, and more accessible than this, even although the coal formation of Wales is estimated as sufficient to supply the present con-

sumption of coal in England for 2000 years. Of the value and availability of the coal formation nothing almost is known, and we are obliged to be satisfied with vague conjectures, while the bulky nature of the article must make the procuring of statistics regarding it, a very simple matter. Bituminous coal abounds in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, and other southern states, appears again in Ohio, and all along the banks of that river, and seems to underlie the whole state of Illinois. But further than this, it is impossible to know how valuable this mineral really is to this country, as no details of the extent to which it is used exist, and the few notices which might be collected about the present coal trade are too much imbued with interested representations to be implicitly relied on. The Virginia mines are believed to be more extensively worked than any others partly from being nearer the coast, and partly from' their being situated in an old settled country where wood is no longer very abundant; and the dealers interested in the mines there, after enumerating the numerous public works to which they have given rise, say,* "this great interest has advanced in a very short period to its present magnitude; previous to 1820 it is believed that the whole exports from Virginia did not exceed 500,000 bushels; in the year 1835 the amount exported from Richmond to different ports in the United States had attained to about 8,500,000 bushels with a supply to the home market of nearly 1,000,000." The mining upon the upper parts of the Ohio is very extensive, and in the interior of the State of Ohio great quantities are pro-

* Executive documents, 2d Session, 24th Congress. No. 93.

cured, and a large proportion is sent to Cleaveland for water carriage, but of the amount so exported, no register exists that we know of. The probable increase of this trade, the source of national wealth it holds out, can never fairly be estimated till its present condition is more accurately ascertained. The amount of foreign coal brought into this country is very great, and is reported in 1836 as being

From England,	811,400 bushels.
Scotland,	65,835
Ireland,	26,312
British America,	2,097,668

Making a sum total of 3,036,083 bushels, valued at $244,995, being less in the aggregate than that produced by Virginia.

2. *Anthracite Coal.* This "hard coal," as it is called, has no foreign competitor, and is produced almost exclusively in the State of Pennsylvania, although Rhode Island also sends a little into the market. From the extensive nature of the improvements which have been undertaken to bring the Schuylkill and Lehigh coals into the market, more publicity is given to their products, and the general nature of their operations, but little of the character of pure statistical information is known about them, out of the state where they are situated. In the year 1834 there were 376,000 tons of Anthracite coal sent from the three principal mining districts of Pennsylvania, and from the same places in 1836 there were mined and sent away 682,000 tons, showing an increase in the production far beyond the calculations of the most sanguine. In the last mentioned season the price for several months was $2

to $2,25, after that, it rose with the rise of the wages of miners and labourers, to $2,50 to $2,75, and in the last days of the season was up at $3,50; but at that time, miners were receiving from $2,50 to $3 a day." Of the importance of this trade to the navigating interest, some idea may be formed from the fact that there have sailed from New York and Philadelphia 5,000 vessels laden with coal, whose freight must have amounted to above a million of dollars.* Several extensive works of internal improvement have been entered upon for the transportation of this coal—viz. to the Schuylkill and Lehigh canals, the Morris canal, the Beaver Meadow rail-road, the Delaware canal and other minor works. In remarking on the relative importance of the two coal trades, the bituminous and anthracite, it is necessary to observe that the one is reported in tons and the other in bushels. Now in reducing the tons to bushels it would be well to have a uniform standard, and if one ton of anthracite were considered as equal to 28 bushels, we believe we would not be led into much error, though perhaps a fully large estimate.

Such then are the mineral products of this country, and we believe we make no rash assertion when we say, that no account exists of the condition of this branch of national industry, and it were therefore well to investigate this most abiding source of wealth by actual survey.

The following schedule might perhaps be a satisfactory one for having the requisite information returned to the department.

* Senate papers, 1836—1837.

MINES.

Name of the District, Town, or Ward, &c.	IRON.															LEAD.						GOLD.					OTHER METALS.			COAL.										
	Cast Iron.				Bar Iron.					Fuel.																				Anthracite.					Bituminous.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
	No. of Furnaces for making Cast Iron.	Value of Raw Material.	Value of Produce.	No. of tons produced.	No. of Bloomeries, Forges, Rolling Mills.	Value of Raw Material.	No. tons Cast Iron reworked in Bloomeries.	Value of Produce.	No. of tons produced.	No. of tons of Charcoal consumed.	No. of tons of Coal consumed.	No. of tons of Anthracite consumed.	No. of men employed.	Average per centage of ore.	Amount of Capital invested.	No. of Smelting Houses, each fire.	lbs. produced last year.	Value of Produce.	Average per centage of ore.	No. of men employed.	Capital invested in Works.	No. of Smelting Houses.	Value of Produce of Mint standard.	Average per centage of Ore.	No. of Persons employed.	Capital invested in Works.	Value produced.	No. of Men employed.	Capital invested.	No. of bushels quarried.	Value of same at the mine.	No. of Men employed.	Expense taking 28 bush. to natural navigation.	Capital invested in Works.	No. of bushels quarried.	Value of same at the mine.	No. of Men employed.	Expense taking 28 bush. to natural navigation.	Capital invested in Works.

We may here make a few remarks explanatory of the titles, where any ambiguity could possibly exist, referring to the numbers at the foot of each column.

Nos. 1, 5, 16, 22, ought to embrace the number of fires, and not the number of houses, every fire being counted one

Nos. 2 & 6 ought to include the value of the ore as delivered at the furnace, the value of the coal used in melting, and the value of the flux, &c.

Nos. 3, 8, 18, 23, 27, 31, & 36, should refer to the value of produce at the mine, or at the nearest market, deducting the cost of transportation.

Nos. 13, 20, 25, 28, 32, 37, include all the men fairly engaged in the works, whether workmen, mechanics, or clerks, but excluding those whose labour will more properly be entered in Nos. 2, & 6, &c. as, for instance, charcoal burners, wagoners, &c.; under this head there must be some discretion exercised by the deputies.

Nos. 15, 21, 26, 29, 34, & 39, ought to include the whole machinery and buildings, any works for creating a water power, and generally the money expended in improving the property.

Manufacture of the Metals.

II. This important subject naturally follows an account of the products of mines, and is one of great interest and difficulty. There are no general principles which can be brought to estimate the value of the manufactured article from the value of the raw material, as the New York Convention estimate the subsequent labour expended on the manufacture of leather to be about 60 per cent. of the value of the material. But to the metals no such principles apply, a pound of iron worked into the finest needles is increased five hundred fold, while the workmanship expended on gold is hardly a small per centage on its value. This subject might be divided into the manufactures of iron, various metals, and precious metals.

1st. Manufacture of iron. The high rate of duty upon raw iron is a subject of complaint among American workmen, as it is easier to import some articles, as wheel tires, ready made, than to import the raw material, and manufacture them in this country. The number who are engaged in this trade throughout the country must be very great, when the amount of machinery employed and of articles of domestic industry produced, is considered. As we have dwelt so long on the production of the raw or crude metals, we shall now only introduce a schedule, and not extract here any little information we have gleaned on this subject.

2d. Various metals. Under this head would be included all the manufactures of lead, zinc, speltzer, tin, brass and copper, with an estimate of the value of the raw material, and the increased value of the

article when manufactured, and in the aggregate this would be found to be a very extensive division, as in Massachusetts alone, in 1836, 377 men were employed in manufacturing tin ware, to the value of $394,322.

3d. The manufactures of the precious metals would include all jewelry, silver ware, watches, and various other articles, whose chief value consisted in the metal of which they were made.

These three divisions, thus summarily stated, will embrace the leading details of the most interesting branch of manufactures in the country, and the following table will suffice for their satisfactory investigation.

IRON.												VARIOUS METALS.			PRECIOUS METALS.		
MACHINERY			NAILS.			HARDWARE.			VARIOUS MANUFACT'S.								
Value of Machinery manufactured	Native / Foreign	Value of raw material used	No. of hands employed	lbs. of nails made of all kinds.	Native / Foreign	Value of raw material used.	No of hands employed.	Value of Hardware Cutlery, Edge tools, Muskets, &c. &c.	Native / Foreign	Value of raw material used.	No of hands employed.	Value manufactured.	Value of raw material.	No. of hands.	Value manufactured.	Value of raw material.	Hands employed.	Value manufactured.	Value of raw material.	No. of hands employed.

III. Manufactures on the Loom.

1*st. Woollen Manufacture.* The high duty which is imposed by the tariff upon all woollen goods, has tended to increase the consumption both of native and foreign wool, and the satisfactory results which have followed the introduction of Merino sheep into this country, have also improved the quality and value of the raw material.

The following list of Prices obtained for ten consecutive Years shows the improvement in the Quality.

AVERAGE PRICE OF WOOL FOR EACH OF TEN YEARS, AS FOLLOWS:									
Price paid in 1827	averaged	36 cts.	℔ lb.		Price paid in 1832	averaged	41 cts.	℔ lb.	
" " " 1828	"	40 "	" "		" " " 1833	"	52½ "	" "	
" " " 1829	"	29 "	" "		" " " 1834	"	50 "	" "	
" " " 1830	"	40½ "	" "		" " " 1835	"	57 "	" "	
" " " 1831	"	58 "	" "		" " " 1836	"	58 "	" "	

The return from each sheep is estimated at 3¼ lbs., and the price estimated at the mean value for the last ten years.

Under the head of Agriculture we shall again refer to the number of sheep in the United States, but here we shall present some short abstracts taken from "Messrs. Benton and Barry's statistical view of the number of sheep," in order to show the great value of this trade.

STATES.	No. of Sheep.	lbs. of Wool.	Value.
Maine,	622,619	2,023,512	$1,021,873
New Hampshire,	465,179	1,511,832	763,475
Vermont,	1,099,011	3,571,786	1,803,751
Massachusetts,	373,322	1,213,297	612,715
Rhode Island,	81,619	265,261	133,957
Connecticut,	255,169	829,299	418,796
New York,	4,299,879	13,974,606	7,057,176
New Jersey,	250,000	812,500	410,313
Pennsylvania,	1,714,640	5,572,580	2,814,153
Delawa e,	150,000	487,500	246,187
Maryland,	275 000	893,750	451,343
Virginia,	1,000,000	3,250,000	1,641,250
Kentucky,	600 009	1,950,000	984,750
Ohio,	1,711,200	5,561,400	2,808,500
	12,897,638	41,917,324	$21,168,246

Sets of Machinery for the Manufacture of Broadcloths,	344
Cassimeres	178
Satinets	574
Flannels	158
Jeans—Linseys	210
Blankets, Yarns, and Hats	24
Carpets	61
	1549

Of these about 150 are supposed to be used for the manufacture of foreign wool, the remainder for wool of native growth.

The excess of fine wool imported over the exports in 1836, was	1,390,678	lbs.
" " coarse " " " " " " " " "	10,905,571	"
Quantity of wool manufactured by families, by estimate — in New-York	3,500,000	"
" Pennsylvania	3,000,000	"
" Ohio	2,000,000	"

All the above information is, we believe, founded on estimate, no actual returns being made of the number of sheep in many of the states, nor of the amount and produce of the machinery employed. However we may suppose that it gives a proximate result, which exhibits as fairly as circumstances will permit, the present condition of the wool trade. It will be seen, that in some of the states the amount of domestic-made cloths is very great; in Pennsylvania, for instance, more than one half the wool raised is so manufactured, and in New York about one fourth,—but of the condition of this branch of industry satisfactory information can easily be obtained, as we will afterwards explain, though it may be doubtful how minutely the investigation ought to be carried on. We are not inclined to believe that so particular a division of the woollen manufacture as the one above extracted would be advisable, and we think cloths for apparel, for covering, as blankets, horse cloths, &c.—and for carpets and rugs, would be sufficient, together with another more general definition embracing the other manufactures of wool, (stockings, &c.) as in the following table.

Township, Ward, or District.	MANUFACTURE OF WOOL.									
	Description of Goods manufactured	No. of manufactories.	Value of raw material.	Value of manufactured goods.	EMPLOYED			Capital invested in machinery.	Moved by water power.	Moved by steam or other power.
					No. of Men,	No. of Females.	No. of persons under 15			
	Cloths for Apparel	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	" " covering	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Carpets	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
	Other woollen goods.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

Cotton Manufacture.

2. Were it not for the very able report on the trade and manufactures of cotton, presented to Congress by Mr. Woodbury, it might have been necessary to enter at some length into the leading features of this trade, with the view of noting the objects to which attention, in taking the census, should be directed. But that report, which in truth furnishes the most complete condensed account of the cotton trade which has yet appeared, renders all further observations unnecessary; more especially as to the author of that document would be entrusted the preparation of the tables to be used by the Deputies, in the event of Congress instituting these statistical enquiries. We therefore merely append a schedule, with a few extracts from that report, to illustrate the arrangement we have adopted.

Cotton Manufacture.

Township, Ward, &c. &c.	No. of manufactories.	No. of Spindles.	Value of raw material.	Amount of raw material in lbs.	Value of manufactured articles.	EMPLOYED.			POWER.		Capital invested.
						Males.	Females.	Persons under 15.	Moved by water.	Moved by steam.	

"The proportion of spindles to a factory was formerly very small both in England and in this country. Before 1806 it was only 1 or 200, and seldom exceeded 1000. The average in new mills is now from 5 to 6 thousand spindles. In Lowell, in 1836, in 27 mills they had 129,828 spindles, or a little under 5000 in each, though they print, &c. in some."

"The spindle is the most convenient article in the cotton manufacture by which to calculate its extent. The power of any one establishment, its cost, the number of persons employed, tne quantity of raw cotton consumed, the yarn and cloth made, and other important results can, by the help of a few general data, be very nearly deduced from the number of spindles."

"The capital invested in cotton manufactories in this country may be estimated at from $28 to $44 on each spindle."

The number of persons employed according to the best authorities

Are in England,	900,000	persons	in 1835.
France,	200,000	"	" 1831.
U. S.,	175,146	"	" 1830.

As all the cotton is produced in the southern states, and shipped from thence to the north, or to Europe, the custom-house papers give an accurate exhibition of the amount raised, with the exception of the quantity which is consumed in domestic manufactures. In the returns of the quantity raised by each planter in the course of the year, which we afterwards recommend, there will be data afforded for ascertaining the amount consumed by domestic industry, which must at present be merely a rude estimate, which Coxe, in his report on manufactures, in 1810 "gives at $5,000,000 value, and the number of yards at 16½ millions, as the produce of the manufacture of cotton in families;" and in the report of Mr. Woodbury we find, "in the south and west the household manufacture of it is very great." As illustrating the domestic economy of different sections of the country such information will be useful and interesting, and can readily be obtained by the returns we purpose to suggest.

The growth of this trade, and the ingenuity exhibited by the manufacturers in improving the machinery, a large number of the recent inventions in the cotton mill having been made in this country, are very grateful subjects for the Political economist to consider, as the extensive use of machinery in this manufacture renders it especially suited to the wants of the American trade, although the original cost of the machinery is much greater here than in England. The recent and very full investigation which this whole branch of commercial and manufacturing wealth has undergone, leaves little to be expected from further inquiry, and the research

which the Secretary of the Treasury has shown is a great encouragement to the student of statistics, when he remembers that the like attention and industry may, under such direction, be applied to all the various sources of national wealth, and we may be able to point, with some confidence, to the returns exhibited without having it said, "Whoever may make an experiment in obtaining precise and accurate returns upon the subjects here treated of, will find that it is neither an easy nor seductive task."

Silk Manufacture.

3. The rapid increase of the cotton trade, and the wealth which it brings to this country, have led many individuals to predict similar advantages as likely to accrue to the north from the introduction of the silk culture and manufacture. The sanguine are ever ready to exhibit accurate and precise calculations of the value of this or other experiments, and if the certainty of success depended on the confidence of prediction, there would be no room for the least hesitation in giving assent to the assumptions of such speculators. Whether the silk trade is capable of being carried on in the U. S., or whether the severity of the climate, and the expenses incident to the management of the silk worm will prevent native silk being raised to any extent, time alone will determine; but it is probable that the condition of the manufacturing interests in this country is not such as will enable it to compete with the low prices and low wages which prevail in France and India, if the raw material used is of foreign growth. Several of the states have lately passed bounty laws for the cul-

tivation of the mulberry tree, and the silk worm, and a mania seems to pervade some sections of the country for the speedy introduction of this new source of wealth. "The state of Connecticut has long taken the lead in the growth and manufacture of silk. Mansfield has been engaged in the raising of it ever since 1760, and the quantity is gradually increasing. Windham and Tolland counties have produced, for the last year, raw silk sufficient to employ 55 looms, which would manufacture 30,000 yards per year of vestings and other broad goods.* In Massachusetts, in 1836, there were 4 manufactories of silk, producing $56,150 worth of goods, employing 125 persons, and having invested capital of $137,000.† The amount of bounty which some of the Connecticut factories are to receive this year is an evidence of the increasing value of this trade, whether permanent or not cannot be determined; "the Connecticut Silk Manufacturing Company, $11,500; Messrs. Gay and Button, of Lisbon, $2000; the Mansfield Silk Factory, $1500; the State-House yard $8000."‡

It is departing from the arrangement we have generally followed, to have the culture of the raw material introduced in connection with its manufacture, but the advantage of uniting the two in the case of the silk trade may be a sufficient reason for departing from the general plan. Properly, the raw material ought to have been classed under the head of agricultural produce, but the infant state of the culture, and the subdivided condition of its manufacture, seem to require the other division.

* New York Farmer. † Bigelow's Report, 1837, Massachusetts. ‡ Ibid.

The following table embraces what appear to be the chiefly interesting points in this trade.

SILK

Township, Ward, &c. &c.	No. of lbs. of Cocoons raised.	No. of lbs. of raw silk spun.	Value of same.	No. of lbs. of sewing silk spun.	Value of same.	MANUFACTURE.								Amount of bounty received from the state.
						No. of manufactories.	Value of foreign produce used.	Value of domestic produce used.	EMPLOYED.			Value of produce.	Capital invested.	
									Males.	Females.	Persons under 15.			

No observations are required upon this table, except that the enumeration of persons employed refers only to those engaged in manufactories, and that the amount of bounty given by the state for any thing connected with this trade be enumerated in the last column.

In the infant rise of this branch of industry, it is of great importance to have the fullest view of its present state exhibited, and when the next decimal period comes round, in 1850, there will be data for an accurate examination of its progress, and the means of ascertaining its value will be afforded. It has been strongly urged upon the general government that something should be done to encourage this interest, but without success, and it is as well perhaps that no encouragement has been held out, which it is impossible permanently to se-

cure to the trade. Should it be found to succeed, the advantages which will accrue to the country will be very great, as it is a species of employment which may well be united with domestic occupations, and every cottage and village may be the seat of useful and advantageous employment, increasing the wealth of the country at large, while it adds to the prosperity and comforts of those engaged in it. The culture of silk will do much to revive the domestic manufactures of the past day, and may exercise a beneficial influence on the morals and habits of the people.

Mixed Manufactures.

4. There are several sorts of manufactures which do not come under any of the three foregoing divisions, which may be included in the following table, such as shawls, &c.

MIXED MANUFACTURES.

Township, Ward, &c. &c.	Value of raw material.	No. of yards produced.	Value of produce.	EMPLOYED.			Capital invested.
				Males.	Females.	Persons under 15.	

General Manufacture of Hats.

5. *Hats.* Under this head various descriptions of articles may be enumerated, and the hats for males might be divided into those of Wool, or Hair, Silk and

Palm Leaf; those for females, into Straw, Palm Leaf, and Silk; and those for boys, into Caps of Fur and Cloth; such subdivision would not, however, be advisable, and the simpler division into Hats, Bonnets, or Caps of Wool, Fur, or Silk, and Hats, Bonnets, or Caps of Vegetable material will be preferable.

The value of this branch of industry is completely unknown, and of course the estimates vary greatly. "The Committee to the New York Convention report mens' hats for home consumption as valued at $10,000,000; those for exportation, at $500,000, and the value of caps in the United States, at $4,500,000; that the number of persons employed in this manufacture is 15,000 men and boys, and 3,000 women; and the wages amonnt to $4,200,000 annually." But such calculations are made with very little consideration, and are based upon some theory of the amount of the value of hats which each person will consume in a year, and no reliance can be placed upon them. That a very large amount of labour and material is expended in this way is believed; and the manufacture will be found to be generally dispersed over the country, as a hat establishment requires but a small capital for its erection. The value of hats manufactured in Massachusetts in 1836, was as follows, which inclines us to doubt the accuracy of the above extract.

Hat Manufactories,	117
No. of Hats manufactured	406,400
Value of Hats manufactured	$678,086
Males employed	556
Females employed	304
No. of Straw Bonnets made	888,927
Value of Straw Bonnets made	$1,261,004
No of Palm Leaf Hats made	3,310,691
Value of Palm Leaf Hats	$641,799

The rate of the tariff has quite excluded foreign hats from the market, and hats of similar quality are now as cheap in this country, as they could be procured from abroad.

The number of Palm Leaf Hats made is very great, but the sum total of their value is small, as they are afforded at a very low price. The manufacture of Straw Bonnets is rapidly increasing, and some of the most valuable description are now made in the eastern states; but both the last articles being domestic manufacture to a great extent, there will, it is feared, be some difficulty in determining their exact value. If the following schedule is properly filled up, the information on the subject will be much increased.

Manufacture of Hats, Bonnets, and Caps, of

Township, Ward, &c. &c.	WOOL, FUR, OR SILK.							VEGETABLE MATERIAL.						
	No. of Manufactoies.	Value of Raw Material.	Value of Manufactured article.	No. of Articles made.	EMPLOYED.			No. of Manufactories.	Value of Raw Mateial.	Value of Manufactured article.	No. of articles made.	EMPLOYED.		
					Males.	Females.	Persons under 15.					Males.	Females.	Persons under 15.

6. The manufacture of hides, skins, and furs, naturally divides itself into the manufacture of leather, and the fabrication of articles from leather and fur.

The increased trade in manufacturing leather has more than kept pace with the general prosperity of the country, but of its actual condition little is known. By the census of the State of New York we find, that in 1835, the value of leather manu-

factured was $5,598,626, while the Convention, in 1830, give the following estimate regarding it. "The leather made in the State of New York was last year valued at $2,905,750, say three millions, and in 1810, at 1,079,742." This shows a very rapid advance in the trade, and from the more recent return, in 1835, the ratio of increase seems to be maintained. "But probably the present value of the manufacture of leather in New York is equal to one-fifth of the whole made in the United States, say therefore 15 millions." If the same estimate were made, the value of leather in this country in 1835 amounted to about twenty-eight millions, exceeding the value of cotton exported 10 years ago. The number of tanneries in New York in 1835, was 412; in Massachusetts 1836, 416; and in New Jersey, 1830, there were 2915 tan vats, but how many tanneries was not reported. The value of this trade demands an accurate inquiry into its present amount, if the first manufacture of the raw material only is considered; when however, the fabrication of articles from leather is estimated, the importance of this branch of national industry is increased. It is calculated by the Convention, that the subsequent manufacture of leather into boots, shoes, and saddlery, increases the value of the material about 60 per cent., which following out the calculation above, would make the whole value of manufactured hides, about, or rather upwards of forty-four millions, and deducting from that, three millions, as the value of raw-hides imported, forty-one millions are left as the product of the soil and industry of the country. The manufacture of boots and shoes is carried on very

extensively in many of the States; the value manufactured in Massachusetts, in 1836, being $14,642,520, and in Newark, N. J., alone, in 1832, they were manufactured to the value of a million and a half dollars.

The following table embraces all deemed desirable, but the other may easily be added, if thought expedient.

Manufacture of Hides and Skins into

Township, Ward, &c.	LEATHER.							MANUFACTURES OF LEATHER.		
	No. of Tanneries.	No. of Tan Vats.	Value of Raw Material.		Value of Manufactured article.	No. of Men.	Value of Bark, &c. employed.	Value of Leather consumed.	Value of manufactured article.	No. of Men.
			Native.	Foreign.						

Soap, Candles, Wax and Oil.

7. The estimates given regarding these necessary articles, which are furnished to the United States, wholly by domestic manufacture, being so very vague, that it is unnecessary to introduce them here, we will only append the form of schedule suited to elucidate the information.

Manufacture of Soap and Candles.

PRODUCED.					Aggregate Value of Raw Material.	Aggregate Value of manufactured article.	No. of men employed.	Capital invested.
No. of lbs. of Soft Soap	lbs. of Hard Soap	lbs. of Sperm Candles	lbs. of Tallow Candles	lbs. of Wax Candles				

Distilled or Fermented Liquors, from Grain, Fruit, or Molasses.

8. It is much to be lamented that so large a proportion of the domestic manufactures still comes under this head, though it is hoped that the quantity is much diminished through the instrumentality of the Temperance Society, and the philanthropist can only regret that so much yet remains to be done for the elevation of the morals of the people, and the suppression of a trade and manufacture which brings want and poverty into the wealthiest regions of this favoured land. The value, or rather, let the expression cost be employed, the cost of spirituous liquors in 1810, was estimated at about one-tenth of the value of all the manufactures of the United States, and amounted to nearly fifteen millions. What are the permanent influences exercised by the Temperance Societies, inquiry alone can determine; and there are some grounds for believing, that in some parts of the country, the traffic in this baneful commodity has diminished, while in others, it seems to have increased, as Mr. Pitkins mentions, that 53,620 barrels of whiskey were brought down the Miami Canal, in 1833. The present extent of this trade will easily be determined, and while the statist records with pleasure, the growth of other branches of industry, he cannot but feel

> Ille et nefasto te posuit die,
> Quicunque primum, et sacrilegâ manû
> Produxit arbos, in nepotum
> Perniciem, opprobriumque pagi.

Statements of the consumption, the expense, and the destructiveness of the use of spiritous liquors are so commonly circulated, that it is needless to repeat

them, particularly as they are too frequently made by persons engaged in promoting temperance, and rather characterized for their good intention than their accuracy. In another place, the number engaged in retailing spirituous liquor will be referred to—the following table is only designed to embrace the manufacture of it.

Distilled Liquors and Fermented Liquors.

DISTILLED.							FERMENTED.				
No. of Distilleries.	No. of bushels of Grain.	No. of gallons Molasses.	No of gallons distilled.	Value of same.	Men employed.	Capital invest'd.	No. of bushels of grain.	No. of gallons brewed.	Value of same.	Men employed.	Capital invested.

Glass of all kinds.

9. The only report of the condition of this trade, is that made to the Convention in 1830, so that the inquiry made in 1840, will show the progress of the manufacture in the interval; the amount said to be made in 1830, being

Flint Glass - - - -	$1,300,000
Crown Window Glass, -	150,000
Cylinder do. do. -	851,000
Glass Bottles of all kinds	200,000
	$2,501,000

employing about 1,800 men, whose wages amounted to $600,000, and the whole amount of glass manu-

factured, was estimated at $3,000,000, while the window glass imported has not, for five years, exceeded $50,000 annually. It is a question of expediency, as we have often already said, whether the subdivisions should be carried to a considerable extent or not, in these different manufactures, which the Secretary must alone determine, but in this trade it would seem advisable to distinguish the four kinds of glass, and to include all pottery or earthenware under two heads, common and fine.

GLASS MANUFACTORY.																		EARTHEN-WARE.							
FLINT.				CROWN.				CYLINDER				BOTTLE.						COM.			FINE.				
No. of Furnaces.	No. of Pots.	Value of raw material.	Va.ue of manufact.	No of Furnaces.	No. of Pots.	Value of raw material.	Value of manufacture.	No. of Furnaces.	No of Pots	Value of raw material.	Value of manufacture	No. of Furnaces.	No of Pots.	Value of raw material.	Value of manufacture.	Men employed.	Capital invested.	No of manufactories	Value of raw material.	Value of manufacture.	No. of manufactories	Value of raw material.	Value of manufacture.	No. of men employed.	Capital invested.

Sugar Refineries.

10. This important branch of national industry is alike the subject of doubt and estimate, and as the returns of it may be easily procured by the following schedule, it is unnecessary to do more than mention the number of manufactories of refined sugar in 1830, although the amount of their manufacture is unknown.

New Orleans	3
Baltimore	8
Philadelphia	11
New York	11
Providence	1
Boston	3
Salem	1

Paper—Manufactures of.

11. This article of such extensive use is also principally supplied by domestic manufacture, and the amount of the production is at present a matter of pure conjecture; it, however, would be shown by the adoption of the following schedule, which will be understood to include paper, both writing and printing, wrapping paper and pasteboard, &c.

Cables and Cordage.

12. It is principally upon the domestic production that the shipping and navy rely for their supplies of cordage and cables, and in New York alone, in 1835, there were 63 factories, producing $980,000 worth of cordage.

Sugar Refineries.						*Paper Manufacture.*						*Cables and Cordage.*							
No. of Manufactories.	Value of Raw Material.		Value of Produce.	Capital invested.	No. of Persons.	No. of Manufactories.	Value of Raw Material.		Value of Produce.	Capital invested.	No. of Persons.	No of Manufactories.	Value of Raw Material.		Value of Produce.	Quantity of Cable in cwts.	Quantity of other Manufactures.	Capital invested.	No. of Persons.
	Native.	Foreign.					Native.	Foreign.					Native.	Foreign.					

Drugs, Paints, &c.

13. This is a very extensive source of wealth to the country, and one which is frequently overlooked. It is impossible to enumerate the various kinds of articles which would come under this head, but many of them are mentioned in an interesting report to the New York Convention, on the subject.

Pleasure Carriages.

14. The manufacturing of carriages and wagons for country and farming use, more properly comes under the head of country occupations; but here we wish to include a trade which is carried on to a great extent in New Haven, Conn.; Newark, N. J.; and various other places throughout the North and West, for the purpose of supplying the domestic or Southern trade with pleasure carriages. Mr. Pitkin estimates this manufacture as being worth more than four millions, annually.

Drugs and Paints.						*Carriage Manufacture.*				
No of Manufactories.	Value of Raw Material		Value of Produce.	Capital invested.	No. of Persons.	No. of Carriages made.	Value of Raw Material.	Value of Manufacture.	No. of Persons.	Capital invested.
	Native.	Foreign.								

IV. AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.

There is one convenient element which the European, and especially the British statists possess, when treating of this branch of national wealth, which fortunately for the social relation of this country, we are entirely ignorant of, that is, the annual value or rent of farm land. In this country, the value of labour is so great, and the cost of land so trifling, that many alterations in the proportion which these elements bear to each other, have necessarily been established; and the nature of our climate, which locks up in a Greenland garb, the soil, which in Europe is tilled throughout the year, tends also to increase the disparity. As the entire agricultural information at present possessed, relative to this country, has been derived from some few isolated facts, serving as the basis of calculations derived chiefly from English authorities, a mere reference to the different condition of the countries, in the one, a dense population and scarcity of land, in the other, a scattered population with an abundance of land, will show, that no great reliance can be placed on such estimated results.

This branch of industry and source of wealth, is unquestionably the most important to the country at large, whether as viewed in relation to its internal

economy, or its foreign trade. Of the ninety-five millions of exports in 1837, about eighty-three were products of the soil, and neither of the particular statistics of the production of this amount of property exported, nor of the amount of domestic consumption, can anything be learned. As concisely as possible, we would desire to show the nature and extent of the information which might be procured, for the subject is one, which ramifying into a thousand branches, might lead to many interesting notices, especially when the great extent of the territory of the United States, the difference of its soils, the variety of its climate, and the differing wants of its inhabitants are considered. But to address ourselves directly to the task, we begin by giving a list of the information which might be obtained, and the most convenient means of acquiring it.

No. of	Horses in the country of all ages		
do.	Cattle, neat	do.	do.
do.	Cows, milch	do.	do.
do.	Sheep,	do.	do.
do.	Swine,	do.	do.
do.	Mules,	do.	do.

No. of	Acres of Wheat, with the average return per acre.	
do.	Barley,	do.
do.	Oats,	do.
do.	Rye,	do.
do.	Buckwheat,	do.
do.	Corn,	do.
do.	Potatoes,	do.
do.	Hay,	do.

No. of lbs. of Cotton,
do. Tobacco,
do. Rice,
do. Sugar.

One of the most interesting features of such returns, would be to show the exact progress of improvement, or alteration in the several counties in each State, and to exhibit, when repeated at the next decimal period, the increasing wealth of the country at large. In some of the recently settled States, the march of improvement is rapid and continuous; in some of those on the seaboard, or in some parts of them at least, the movements have for many years been retrograde, and at present the political economist must rest satisfied with the rudest approximation to the causes which have induced the different changes. If either the rise and progress, or the decline of each small district of the country were accurately determined, there would then be some ground to hope that we might be able to detect the causes, respectively, which influence the changes and by promoting the one and checking the other, the different classes might hope to be materially benefitted.

We see no reason to apprehend any peculiar difficulty in arriving at sufficiently accurate returns of the agricultural statistics of the country, as the deputies can easily put the questions directly to the farmer, and the answers, though generally accurate, would not require to be made with scrupulous nicety. Every farmer could tell how many acres of wheat he had sown during the past year, and could either report the actual product per acre of his returns, or

estimate their probable production, as there would be no need of descending to the fraction of an acre, and within a quarter of a bushel would be a sufficient approximation to the amount. Of the number of live stock in his possession, he could make equally satisfactory answers, it being understood that that term applied to all the animals living, without regarding their particular ages. In the State of New Jersey, where the assessors for the purposes of taxation, report the number of cattle, there is a division made between those under, and those above 3 years, but we hardly think that any valuable statistical information would follow such distribution, and as it would increase the trouble, we do not think it advisable to retain it. On the whole, therefore, while we are sanguine that many useful facts might be obtained from the returns as here proposed, we see no difficulty which need prevent them from being complied with. Let us now take a rapid survey of the articles enumerated in the above list.

Horses.—Whether as illustrating the social habits of a people, or their economical arrangement, the information relative to the live stock and its description, would be valuable. In a thinly settled country like this, where distances to market towns and churches are great, and where many difficulties prevent the inhabitants from making a habit of walking, the number of horses kept for pleasure, or convenience, will be greater than where, as in some European countries, the custom of walking pervades all classes. On the other hand, the system of management will increase or diminish the number of horses kept for agricultural purposes, as in some

counties in England, seven horses are required to move the antiquated plough still in use, while a more useful implement is drawn in other counties by two. Custom in different districts, which determines the feeding of horses, varies so greatly, that it would be impossible to determine the annual outlay incurred in maintaining the horses in this country, and though the information would be valuable and interesting, we rather fear that it would be found to be too intricate for most farmers to answer, as they seldom keep accurate accounts of the consumption of produce on their farms. Throughout the country generally, the expense of keeping a horse might be estimated at $25 a year, and there are perhaps, at present, about 3,500,000 in this country, which would amount to an outlay of $87,500,000, a very large item when considered in the aggregate; but this is merely an unauthorized estimate. The only information on the subject, we append below, being an *estimate* of the number of horses in England, by McCulloch, and *returns* of the number for two States, New York and New Jersey, for the years 1835 and 1830.* Dismissing then, the interesting and useful questions of the whole value of the horses in this country, the expense of their keep, and the proportion of the produce of the land which they consume, which has been estimated at about one-sixth, all we propose to have returned, is the number

*ENGLAND, 1834.	No. of Horses	1,500,000	being	1	to	every	9.3	persons.
	No. of Cattle	4,119,487	"	1	"	"	3.4	"
NEW-YORK, 1835	No. of Horses	524,892	"	1	"	"	4.1	"
	No. of Cattle	1,885,731	"	1	"	"	1.2	"
NEW-JERSEY, 1830.	No. of Horses and and Mules.	53,865	"	1	"	"	5.9	"
	No. of Cattle	176,670	"	1	"	"	1.8	"

There being in England rather less than 3 Cattle to each Horse, and in these two States about 3½; the number of Horses and Cattle for the same number of population, being about double in America.

now existing throughout the country, which can be no very difficult task.

CATTLE.—We are strongly tempted to divide this head into Cows giving milk, and other cattle, as while it would not increase the labour much, it would afford some criteria for estimating the amount of dairy produce which the country affords. It might also be desirable to have the number slaughtered within a year, returned, but we fear that many difficulties would present themselves, which could not easily be got over. It has been estimated in England, that one-fourth are killed annually, but we believe, that that is a larger number than the practice of this country condemns to the shambles, and that one-fifth would be nearer the truth. The number of cattle in the United States, may perhaps be about eleven millions, which would make the number killed annually, not quite two millions, of which nearly $600,000 worth, are exported. The table above gives an account of the numbers in New York and New Jersey.

SHEEP.—When speaking of woollen manufactures, we have noted the slender stock of information which we possess, regarding the number of Sheep in the United States, and certainly in relation to a subject of such national importance as the growth of wool for the supply of the domestic and home market, some attention and trouble were well expended. Of late years, the price and quality of the wool produced, have increased much, and great attention is now paid in many parts of the United States, to the increase and improvement of the flocks—in 1836, there were about thirteen millions of

Sheep, producing about forty-two millions of pounds of wool, which are worth about $21,000,000.

Of the different breeds of sheep which prevail in this country it is not necessary to take account, and in truth the difficulty of determining the kind in some of the mixed flocks must deprive the returns of much value. In the returns from the assessors in Massachusetts however, the whole number of sheep, numbering 374,614 are divided into Saxony 46,985, Merino 200,383, and all other kinds 127,246; but we do not think such subdivisions should be followed.

But the whole of the returns under this head possess an interest of which we have now to speak when taken in connection with the returns of the manufactures of the country. In the Secretary's report on the cotton trade, it is stated that the quantity of cotton of domestic manufacture is very considerable, but that no data present themselves for estimating it, and in "Messrs. Barry and Benton's statistical view of the number of sheep," a rough estimate is made of the quantity of wool of domestic manufacture in three states, which we have extracted in another place. Of these two great branches of domestic industry, no means are at hand by which they can be valued, and we think that by having accurate returns made of the quantity of raw material produced in each district, and then subtracting the quantity exported and that consumed in manufactories, the residue will be the amount reserved for domestic use. In Pennsylvania the estimated amount of domestic consumption is more than half the quantity supposed to be produced, and in some districts of the south, cotton may be consumed to an almost equally great extent. And

let it not be thought that because such manufactures do not swell any statement of the national productive industry, and because they cannot be reduced to a monied value and accurately portrayed, that they are trifling in their character and unworthy of consideration, for in many features they are to be admired and many substantial reasons might be given for having every encouragement extended to them. They are the product generally of labour which would otherwise be unemployed, and though they could not be produced for the general market at as low a price as manufactories can send them out, yet they form a decided increase to the national wealth, and if the labour expended on them were to be diverted, no other channel in which it could flow can be suggested. They are chiefly produced by the females in the country, who besides their household labours have time and opportunity to pursue them, during those hours, when "the busy house-wife plies her evening care," and during the inclement weather of the winter, when the whole family contribute their share to the domestic industry. And if in addition to these advantages, they have the tendency to keep a family united under the same roof where the respective duties of life are regarded, and its affections and courtesies interchanged, instead of consigning all the young women to some distant cotton or woollen factory, they are exercising a very healthy influence upon the morality of the country. Now these returns of the number of sheep raised in each small section, with the average weight of the wool they produced, would enable the statist to determine with very considerable accuracy the amount, extent

and value of the domestic industry of the country, a thing which at present is entirely overlooked in the statements of the consumption, either of the raw material or of the manufactured article, and taken in connection with the number of fulling mills, we could ascertain the amount of wool manufactured in the different districts by household industry.

SWINE.—In this country the number kept is supposed to be very great, though we are surprised to find that the number of hogs reported in the state of New-York, is smaller than the number of neat cattle, which we are inclined to attribute to error. At least 200,000 are slaughtered in Cincinnati, in the course of six weeks in the fall of the year, and while in 1837 the export of beef was only valued at $585,146, the value of pork, &c., exported was $1,299,796. From this extent of exportation we would be inclined to think that the amount of pork produced was equal, if not greater than that of beef, but it must be remembered that the same numerical amount of animals, would furnish a much greater supply of provision; and as in the former case we estimated that not more than one fifth were annually killed, in the present case nearly one half of the enumerated number are yearly destroyed. This makes a great difference, and from the same number of hogs as there are cattle, the one being estimated to weigh 200 lbs., the other 500 lbs., we would have the same amount of provision annually furnished. The number raised (or rather perhaps in this and the other returns the number possessed at the time of inquiry would be a more suitable form for the question) might easily be ascertained, and we would then be possessed of

another means of approximating to the actual amount of live stock.

MULES.—In some of the mountainous coal regions, in the south and south west, these animals are used to a considerable extent and bear a higher value than ordinary horses. In the returns for New Jersey, above quoted, they are united with the horses, and perhaps it might be as well not to make any distinction here, but have "horses and mules" in one division, as they are contained in one entry in the summary of the exports of the United States, a great many being annually sent to the West India Islands. As they occupy the same position in the domestic economy as the horse, a separate return would not serve any practical end.

In the last few articles referred to, the live stock of the country, and their value, &c., there have been always some rude and it may be very incorrect estimate before the public, but of the quantity and variety of the cereal grasses and other vegetable productions at present raised, not even the slightest estimate has, we believe, been attempted. The information would be most useful, and we think may easily be attained by inquiries from the farmers throughout each district, as at present the most lamentable ignorance of the whole subject exists. It is not even known how much of the land in many of the states is under cultivation, or how great the extent of territory actually is. Even in England, small and densely peopled as it is, the estimates of the area have varied greatly.

Anciently England was thought to
contain - - - 29,000,000 acres,

Gregory King,	computed	it	at	39,000,000	acres,
Arthur Young,	"	"	"	46,000,000	"
Dr. Beeke,	"	"	"	38,498,572	"
McCulloch,	"	"	"	37,098,572	"

If we find England vary so much in her estimated area, where all the means of accurate information abound, it cannot be wondered at that many of the states in this newer country are but imperfectly estimated. In the west, where the lines bounding the states run at right angles, and where the divisions follow the directions of the boundary, little error can occur, but in the eastern states no such facilities present themselves, and the greatest discrepancy prevails. In the small state of New-Jersey, for instance, Morse allows 5,324,800, Smith, 4,800,000, Darby, 4,384,000, exactly one-fifth less than Morse; and Gordon makes 4,656,330 acres, which, from some inquiries, we believe to be nearly correct. Now we do not purpose to discover the area of the whole state by these returns, but we hope to find the quantity under actual cultivation, which at present is in far greater darkness than the whole area. By the assessors' returns in some states, it may be gathered to be as follows: in the state of New-York, one-third of the whole land is cultivated, and in the state of New-Jersey, only one-fourth is improved; but these estimates are not of general application.

But if the whole quantity of land under cultivation is unknown, the relative proportion of the different cultivated cereal grasses is likewise a mystery. The difference of climate, soil and situation, all contribute to make the kinds and proportions of the vegetable productions vary greatly, and it would be

quite impossible to form any general calculation of the productions of the different states, unless each state were separately considered. In England little certainly is known about the agricultural products, and the following table, formed merely by estimate, can afford but little criterion by which to judge, even of the middle states.

The proportion which the wheat land bears to all other crops, is about	31,66	crop val'd.	at	£30,875,000
Barley and Rye,	7,50	"	"	5,400,000
Oats and Beans,	25,00	"	"	16,875,000
Clover, Roots,	10,83	"	"	13,125,000
				£66,275,000
Hops,	1,25			
Fallow,	13,75			

Although such are the *estimated* proportions of land under the different crops in England, we are far from stating it as an approach to the actual condition of any part of this country. But we must regret that no documents exist from which even the remotest estimate can be formed of the produce of the agricultural labour of this country, or the kinds of produce upon which it is chiefly expended.

WHEAT.—The value, extent and average production of this great staple of our country, may easily be learned by requiring of the farmers, accurate or proximate returns of the number of acres under crop the last year, and the average quantity per acre of produce. It is needless in this and the following subjects to reiterate the complaint of want of information, we therefore conclude by giving an estimate of

what the extent and value of the wheat crop in New-York *may* have been in 1835, founded on the table above, and the marshal's returns of that state in 1835. There was $17,687,009 worth of raw produce manufactured at the mills there, and supposing that the wheat in New-York state produced the same proportional value to the other crops as it did in England, we would have $8,240,000 as the value of the raw wheat, which as the price that year averaged about $1 would give the same number of bushels.

Barley.—Very little of this grain is produced in this country, and that is consumed wholly in the distillery. It is said that the introduction of potatoes in the manufacture of spirit has diminished the amount of barley raised. The more general use of this grain, especially where the wheat crop has been thrown out during the winter, would be a great improvement, and the grain, when steamed, may be very advantageously employed in feeding horses or cattle, during the winter.

Rye.—As a substitute for wheat, where the climate or soil will not admit of the more valuable grain, and as the chief article of food in many districts of the country among the labouring classes, the statistics of the cultivation of this grain would be very interesting. $165,457 worth of rye meal was exported in 1837.

Oats.—In the eastern and middle states, this grain constitutes the principal food of horses, and in some of the western states the quantity raised is considerable, but both there and in the south, the use of Indian corn interferes with the consumption of this grain.

Buckwheat.—This grain, not enumerated in the English returns, is used to a considerable extent in this country. It is a valuable crop, as it enriches the land by preventing the heat of summer from scorching it; it is also useful for various domestic purposes. This grain is not supposed to be used to any extent for distillation.

Indian Corn.—It may be difficult to say whether wheat or maize is the great staple of the agricultural interest in this country, and we believe that as we refer to the north or to the south, each in its turn may claim the honour. This is certainly the most valuable grain which the country possesses, and one of the compensating advantages which the American has over the English farmer, for the length of his winter and the excessive heat of his summer. The quantity of wheat exported is much greater than that of Indian corn, about two-thirds more. But this is no criterion of the value of the crop, as its chief excellence consists in furnishing a green crop of great service to the land, and an abundant return of grain in harvest; and indeed as a green crop, it supplies the place which turnips and potatoes occupy to a great extent in England.

Potatoes.—The extent and produce of this crop can easily be known, and although it does not occupy the same prominent place in the agricultural returns of this country as in some parts of Europe, it is nevertheless extensively cultivated.

Hay.—The returns of this article may be more difficult, and perhaps it may be questioned whether any queries should be put regarding it, and if they should be inserted, it will be well to divide the table

into two divisions, the one the quantity of natural or meadow hay, the other the quantity of hay from clover and fresh grass.

The above information might be easily procured and would be of infinite service, as it would exhibit more clearly the various interests which are perpetually striving to maintain their place in the general improvement of the country. If the general government should institute a board of agriculture as they now contemplate, with an agricultural museum, the value of knowing the comparative extent and progress of the several cultures will readily be apparent.

The average productiveness of the different crops must necessarily be inquired into, as well as the number of acres under culture. In England, McCulloch estimates the return of wheat per acre, at 21 bushels, barley 32, oats 36, potatoes 250 bushels. In this country, the immense extent of territory, and the difference of climate necessarily preclude any general average from being taken, at which to estimate the actual returns of the whole country. And it must also be remembered that in England, and especially in Scotland, they have accurate thrashing machines which alone are estimated to rescue from loss otherwise unavoidable, 5,204,000 bushels of wheat (this calculation is made on the supposition that they are quite universal, which they are not,) and in this country the greater part of the thrashing is done upon moveable thrashing floors; the crop, often not stored in barns, or drawn over very rough roads before its produce is ascertained. Whatever may be the quantity of American grain, there can be no doubt of the quality and perfection in which some of the species are produced Hall, in

his statistics of the west, speaks of having seen a bushel of wheat weigh 68 lbs. to the bushel, and on another occasion one that weighed 67 lbs. But the returns would be too uncertain, were we to desire that the weight per bushel should be reported, and we merely notice this fact incidentally, in order to induce persons throughout the country to record the instances of extra weight which they happen personally to witness.

Of the return of Indian corn, we are also unable to speak. "If," says Hall, "a western farmer be asked the question, how many bushels of corn are raised to the acre, the usual reply is *one hundred.* This quantity may be produced on fine soil, with assiduous culture, but under ordinary circumstances, with careful attention, 60 bushels is about the average crop."

Generally speaking, however, no accurate estimate can be formed of the returns procured from these several crops, till some uniform data are afforded which may enable us to enter more minutely into the examination of this interesting subject.

In the foregoing subjects of inquiry, the returns spoken of are always made in measured quantities; in those we now refer to, the number of lbs. is the standard to which they are always referred. To begin with *the agriculture of Cotton.* Under the head of the Manufactures of this article, we noticed the able statistical paper of Mr. Woodbury, regarding the exportation and manufacture of Cotton; but it must be remarked, that neither he nor any other writer has touched at all upon the agriculture of Cotton, or the peculiarities which attend its progress and growth, while in the hands of the planter. We refrained, on

the former occasion, from making any extracts from that Report, as it was so generally circulated, and we shall not now have recourse to it, as every one knows the rapid increase of this source of wealth, which in 1794 began to exist, and last year exported to foreign shores $60,000,000 worth of raw material. But we wish to refer to some interesting details which may be elicited in the course of inquiries into the history and condition of this crop. It is well known, that but for the invention of Whitney, the cultivation of Cotton on upland countries, would never have reached its present extent, and experience has proved that that machine is effective. This is now a matter of history, and at all times it was easily tested by mechanical principles, or in actual practice. But there is at present another momentous question in the course of being solved, to which we invite the attention of the statist; and that is, whether Cotton can ever productively become the produce of free labour? At present we disregard the question of the propriety or policy of Slave labour, as totally foreign to our subject; we seek to have some data to inquire into its economy, and we think we may be able to discover some elements by which to estimate the result in this great principle now becoming noticed in the production of Cotton. Let us, as an illustration, instance some facts, *supposed* to be deduced from the returns made to Congress, which we have suggested as practicable and useful. We take the cases of two Counties in Georgia, merely as suitable for our purpose in the distribution of their population, without any regard to their actual condition, viz. Hall and Jones Counties; in these, by the last census, there were,

	HALL.	JONES.
White Males	5297	3364
do. Females	5265	3107
Slaves	1182	6829
Free Blacks	4	45
	11,748	13,345

In Hall County the whites are ten times more numerous than the blacks; in the other, Jones County, they are not quite so numerous as the blacks. Such data are ascertained by the census' returns, but we can go no further; we cannot determine the influence which such a different political organization exercises upon the products of the soil. Now if we could know the exact production of each district, as, for instance, that Hall County raised 10,000 lbs. of Cotton, and that Jones County raised 12,000, we would be able to see the influence which free white labour had in the agriculture of Cotton, and if, at the next decimal period, the ratio of production had increased faster in proportion to the population in Hall, than in Jones, or, vice versa, we would be able to detect the results of such different distributions of labour. The question is one of very great interest, and regarding it no settled opinion can be entertained; till some criterion exists by which to examine it.

In addition to the solution of this interesting question in political economy, we will have the same kind of information regarding Cotton of which we spoke when referring to Wool. "The farmers in Illinois, Missouri, and the Southern parts of Indiana and Kentucky, raise Cotton for home consumption. They make all they use, and most of their families are clad

in Cotton fabrics mannfactured at home."* Now to what extent this home manufacture extends, and of what value it is to the community, the statist is unable to determine; but whenever the number of pounds of Cotton raised, is determined, we will be able to approximate to the amount consumed in the country. As returns of the quantity of Cotton could easily be procured, and as it would cast a useful light over two subjects of investigation, we hope to find this return included with the others.

Culture of Tobacco.

In an interesting article on this trade, in the American Almanac for 1838, we find the following notices: The annual average exportation for the last 21 years, from 1815 to 1835 inclusive, is within a fraction of 82,760 hogsheads. Taking our estimate of 1,200 lbs. per hogshead to be the true weight, we have thus 99,313,000 lbs. as the annual average of the last 21 years; and we have seen that the annual average exportation for the 4 years ending in and including 1775, was 99,374,785 lbs., which establishes the remarkable fact, that the exportation of the leaf Tobacco, has remained stationary for a period of 60 years. "The revolutionary war seems to have given a check to the growth of this plant, from which it never recovered; as during its continuance many continental nations, which had previously depended entirely upon the supply from this country, turned their attention to the domestic cultivation of the plant, and have ever since continued to supply their own market."

* Hall's Statistics of the West.

If the exportation of this article has been stationary, the consumption of it at home seems to have kept pace with the progress of population. "Formerly, when all the Tobacco was grown in Virginia and Maryland, we exported as much as we do now, and now, in addition to those States, which produce nearly, if not quite as much, as they did then, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tenessee, together with Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Indiana and Missouri, produce as much more. We must, therefore, consume more than the quantity required for exportation."

"The Rev. Mr. O. Fowler, from considerable attention to the statistics of Tobacco consumption in the United States, estimates the annual cost at $10,000,000;" but on what data he founds his conclusion we are not informed.

As the culture of this plant extends throughout all the country, and is said to flourish particularly in the West, "a few hogsheads sent from Kaskaskia (Illinois) to New-Orleans, some years since, was pronounced by the inspector to be the best ever brought to that market,"* it would be interesting to observe its progress, and as it is said to exhaust the soil rapidly, we may be able to trace its march westward in search of virgin soil, leaving the tracts on the seaboard either to be overrun with brushwood or be cultivated for grains. At present, it is impossible to determine the consumption of this plant, and, till the whole quantity produced is determined, all conjecture must necessarily be vague.

* Am. Almanac, 1838—Hall's Statistics of the West.

Culture of Rice.

This valuable grain, like Tobacco, has been very stationary in the amount of its export,—the value of the export in 1807 being $2,367,000, and thirty years afterwards, or in 1837, being $2,309,279. The quantity raised and consumed in this country, is unknown, but could easily be determined by reference to the returns of the Marshals for each district, and, as the other cereal grasses and grains are all noticed, Rice had better be included, though, from its character, more information could be gathered regarding it than about any other agricultural production, without specific returns.

Culture of Sugar.

Although, for our part, inclined to doubt the policy which has increased the Sugar culture in this country, we will quote a short account of the production from Pitkin's Statistics. "To encourage its production, it will be remembered that in 1816 an *addition* of half a cent was laid on imported brown Sugar, making the whole duty about three cents, and experience has proved the policy of the measure. The average quantity of foreign Sugar annually consumed in the United States, from 1820 to 1830, was 57,000,000 of pounds, and the whole quantity consumed about 140,000,000—being 83,000,000 as the production of Louisiana, which will soon furnish Sugar enough for the whole consumption of the United States."—*Pitkin's Statistics*, 499.

In this cursory notice of the principal agricultural products, it may be thought that we have enumerated some which, from their comparatively limited cultivation, it were better to have omitted; but the vast interest to the community, of the progress of agriculture, make it very desirable to have not only the returns of the principal crops, but of those also which are cultivated to a smaller extent. And, although the subjects enumerated, are numerous, they can be simply classified as in the following table:

LIVE STOCK OF ALL AGES.					VARIOUS CROPS.																			
No. of Horses and Mules	No. of neat Cattle, except in next column.	No. of Cows giving Milk.	No. of Sheep.	No. of Swine.	No of acres of Wheat	Average produce per acre in bushels.	No. of acres of Barley	Average produce per acre.	No. of acres of Oats	Average produce per acre.	No of acres of Rye	Average produce per acre.	No. of acres of Buckwheat	Average produce per acre.	No. of acres of Indian Corn	Average produce per acre.	No. of acres of Potatoes	Average produce per acre.	No. of acres of Hay	Average produce per acre in tons.	No. of lbs. of Cotton gathered.	No. of lbs. of Tobacco gathered.	No. of lbs. of Rice gathered.	No. of lbs. of Sugar made.

OCCUPATIONS

IN WHICH THE INHABITANTS ARE ENGAGED.

In our former notice of Manufactures, we limited the term to the wholesale fabrication of the raw material into the finished article; and here we propose to establish some data, by which to estimate the amount and nature of the retail trade in the country. The information under the other head, we intend should be derived entirely from the answers of those possessing or managing manufactories; the information we at present seek, will be obtained by direct questions to the workmen themselves. In the other returns we had the number of workmen engaged, in many manufactures, as for instance, of leather, we will now have the same individuals returned again, with the addition of those who work in leather, but not in manufactories, as the retail shoemakers, saddlers and trunk-makers. It were well if this repetition could have been avoided, but we think that the difficulty of having the separation preserved throughout the various trades and occupations, would be so great as to defeat the object of these returns. If the returns therefore, are made by combining the two, namely, those who work for the wholesale, and those who work for the retail trade, as we have already the former numbered in the returns from the manufacturers, by simple subtraction, we have the number engaged in the various trades throughout the country. And the reason for making this distinction, we have

already stated to be the importance of gaining statistical information regarding some of the larger manufactures, which it is fruitless to seek to obtain, relative to the smaller trades. In the former returns, we desired to know the value of the manufactured and raw materials, the capital invested, and other particulars of the traffic which it is quite impossible to learn regarding the various handicrafts, and occupations throughout the country, and which, if attempted, would swell the returns to an interminable length.

Such being the different kind of information at which we aim, let us now inquire into the extent of useful insight which the proposed returns will give us, into the internal economy of the country.

The distinction which some popular authors and political leaders, seek to establish between the producing and consuming classes, as false in theory and vicious in its application, we cannot admit of here, however convenient such a general classification might have been. But we will be able to find from these returns, the proportion which those who practice the liberal professions bear to those who are engaged in either manufactures, commerce, or agriculture, and also the number engaged in each of these general divisions of labour. So many causes combine to form the habits of a people, and external circumstances, whether of climate or soil, are so very powerful in their influence, that it must always be difficult to examine the subject in detail, yet an accurate statistical table of the employment of a whole community, will form a very interesting foundation for such an inquiry. Pure statistical information is a very valuable source of knowledge; estimates,

founded probably upon some latent theory, are extremely embarrassing, and such alone prevail, regarding the number of persons engaged in the different leading branches of industry in this country. In the returns for 1810, there was a general classification made of the leading occupations, of agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, which presented the following result:

There was about 83 per cent. of the population engaged in agriculture; 14 in manufactures; 3 in commerce.

While in England, in 1810, there were about 33 per cent engaged in agriculture; 46 in manufactures; 21 not engaged in agriculture or trade.

And in France, in 1817, the Count Laborde estimated that there were about 60 per cent. of the population engaged in agriculture; 22 in manufactures; 15 in various employments; 3 indigent.

Or in England, 5-15ths of the population provide food for the community; in France, 9-15ths; in the United States, 12-15ths are required to maintain the community: which would argue a very different state of society from that prevailing in England, as the whole amount of agricultural products exported (in 1837, $14,000,000, or the tenth of the imports) does not by any means account for the difference.

This return we propose, should be made by direct information obtained by the deputy, and that after having marked down the age of the person, he should ask "how he got his livelihood," and according to his answer, note him down under some of the heads in the following table. We can foresee no difficulty in making this examination, and the information obtain-

ed, as showing the relative strength of the different trades and occupations throughout this country, the state of their division and local distribution would be exceedingly valuable, and would enable the statist, united with the separate returns of the leading manufactures, to obtain very correct impressions of the value of the internal industry of the country, and would show in a considerable degree, the habits of the people. Under the head of bakers, for example, we would learn the domestic habits of different sections of the community, as we believe, in New-York, almost all the population buy their bread, while in Baltimore, on the other hand, it is chiefly made in families. This is a trifling illustration, but merely one of many which might be given to show some of the collateral information which might be gathered from such a table, at the same time that it was contributing greatly to the knowledge of the general economy of the country. We have said that such a return might easily be obtained, and yet in taking the census for 1810, the returns exhibited great marks of carelessness. For example, as mentioned by Dr. Seybert, there were only 110 printing offices returned, when it is known that there were upwards of 400. In that return, however, the different way in which the query was put, makes us hope for more success if this one is considered a second enumeration of the people, according to their trades or occupations, as the first enumeration was according to their ages. We annex a table from Cleland's Statistics, which will show how satisfactory such information may be made, when under the direction of a skilful agent.

Occupations in which the Population of the City and Suburbs of Glasgow were engaged in 1831. *Whole population* 202,426.

Clergy, Professors, Teachers, Students, and Literary persons.	2659	Dyers, Calico Printers, Bleachers, Starchers, and Singers.	1664	Silver Smiths, Jewelers, Watch and Clock-makers.	277	Gardeners, Fruiterers, Green grocers and Seedsmen.	409
Foreign and Home Merchants, and Bankers.	1702	Engravers, Block and Print Cutters.	359	Barbers, Hair-dressers, and Perfumers.	232	Warehouse men and Supernumeries.	1093
Surgeons, Druggists, and Chemists.	494	Machinists, Engineers, and Millwrights.	892	Potters, Glass-cutters, and Dealers in Glass and China.	501	Distillers, Brewers, and others employed in the Spirit trade.	2913
Writers, Law Agents, Messengers, Sheriff and Town Officers.	629	Brass, Iron, and Type Founders and Moulders.	924	Flax Dressers, Rope Spinners, Sail and Block-makers.	349	Washers, Dressers, and Manglers.	582
Agents, Factors, and Accountants.	544	Masons, Brick-layers, Marble-cutters, and Cause-wayers.	1552	Brush and Basket-makers, and Comb and Spoon-makers.	313	Tobacconists, Tobacco-spinners, Dry-salters, and Soap and Candle-makers.	411
Muslin Manufacturers and Calenderers.	1319	Upholsters, Cabinet-makers, Joiners, and Sawyers.	2986	Coach-makers, Cart and Wheel-wrights.	322	Hawkers and dealers in small wares.	1276
Booksellers, Stationers, and Bookbinders.	459	Slaters and Plasterers.	584	Tailors, Clothiers, and Hatters.	2128	Waiters in Taverns, Post-boys, Hostlers and Grooms.	716
Compositors, Letter-press printers, and Folders.	573	Colourmen, Painters, Plumbers, and Glaziers	761	Haberdashers, Mercers, Drapers, Hosiers, and Glovers.	321	Furniture brokers and dealers in old clothes.	254
Clerks and Commercial Travellers.	1753	Black, Copper, and Tin Smiths, Braziers and Pewterers.	1947	Milliners, Straw-hat-makers, and Seamstresses.	3093	Colliers, Quarry-men, and Labourers.	6614
Weavers, Warpers, and Winders.	15,217	Ironmongers, Hardware-men, and Nailers.	474	Bakers Confectioners, and Pastry-cooks.	1063	Cow-keepers, Carters, and Carriers.	1487
Tambourers, Darners, and Clippers.	1231	Tanners, Curriers, Boot and Shoe-makers, and Saddlers.	2715	Fleshers, Fish-mongers, snd Poulterers	456	Porters and Watchmen.	1254
Cotton Spinners and Steam loom Weavers.	9856	Coopers and Turners.	497	Grocers and Victuallers.	1127	Numerous Miscellaneous occupations.	6361
						Total engaged in various Trades.	103,001

The whole population between 10 and 70 years being 143,142, there are 40,141 persons not engaged in trade, including householders, and domestic servants, &c.

While on the other hand, the same returns, made under the same act of Parliament, when not properly directed, presented a number of the grossest absurdities. According to some returns appended to the British census of 1831, it would appear that there were only 295 males, upwards of 20 years of age, employed as bleachers in England, and one in Scotland. It is also stated in the same table, that there is not a single male musical instrument-maker in Scotland, and three seal engravers; while in England, there is only one seal engraver. Such faulty returns must show the necessity of getting the information properly collected, and especially of having the queries well and judiciously selected, which will go far towards having the answers correctly returned, and we entertain great hopes that the number of persons engaged in the different occupations, will be accurately determined, if the question is addressed to each person as he is enumerated.

The following table we have made out with care, and while it might either be easily lengthened or curtailed to suit the views of those directing the census, it is believed that it will be found to be as concise as is consistent with accurate information, and unless a great expense is to be incurred, it is thought to be as full and completely subdivided as circumstances will admit of.

Professions.

Lawyers, Attornies, Judges, &c. &c.
Medicine, Doctors, Surgeons, and all with a diploma,
Professors and Teachers, in Colleges, Seminaries, &c.,
Common School Teachers—Males,
" " " Females,
Engineers, Surveyors, &c.,
All other Professional Men,

Agriculturists and Country Labourers.

Farmers, owning or managing a farm,
Farm Labourers, of all kinds,

Millers—Grist,
Saw,
Fulling,
Plaster,
Bark,
Seed and other kinds,
Asheries—Pot or Pearl,
Brick-Makers,
Lime,
Quarries—Stone,
Miners—Coal,
" Metals, &c.,
Charcoal Burners,
Gardeners,
General Labourers or Spademen,

Commercial Interests.

Merchants entirely wholesale,
Merchants or Storekeepers, } Dry Goods, Hardware, Country or mixed store, Druggists,
Groceries and Feed stores,—Liquors not retailed,
Groceries and Spirit stores—Liquors retailed by the glass, or drank on the premises,
Persons engaged in Transportation—including those engaged on canals, railroads, stages, wagons, cars, carts, or vehicles for the carriage of goods,
Persons engaged in Transportation—including those engaged in steamboats and coasting vessels, to be enumerated at the place of registration,
Keepers of taverns, or hotels, or houses of entertainment,
Keepers of temperance hotels, or houses of entertainment.

Manufacturers and Tradesmen.

Bakers, Confectioners, Pastry-Cooks, &c.,
Butchers, Fishermen, Fish-Curers, &c.,
Brewers, Distillers, Cordial-makers, Preservers, &c.,
Brush, Basket or Broom-makers, Wire-workers,
Button, cloth, silk, or metal,
Cabinet-makers, Upholsters, Hair Cushion, Chair-makers,
Candle-wax, Tallow, and Spermaceti,
Coopers, of all kinds,

Carriage, Coach, Stage and pleasure Wagon-makers,
Comb-makers,
Cotton Spinners and Weavers,
Clock and Watch-makers,
Cutlers, Needle and Pin-makers,
Carpenters, house and general,
Dyers, Scourers, and Renovators,
Engravers, Map-makers and Artists,
Earthen Ware of all kinds—makers of,
Fur-workers and Trimmers,
Fire-arms—Guns, Rifles, Pistols, &c.,
Glass-makers—Blowers and Cutters,
Hat-makers, Caps of all kinds, male and female,
Iron-workers, Smiths, Nailers, Founders, &c.,
Leather—Boot, Shoe and Slipper-makers,
" All other Manufacturers of,
Linen Spinners and Weavers,
Lead, workers in—Plumbers,
Marble-cutters,
Musical Instrument-makers,
Milliners, Dress-makers, Seamstresses, Corset-makers,
Mechanist, Machine-makers, and Mill-wrights,
Printers, Booksellers, Stationers, and Book-binders,
Paper-makers,
Paint-makers, Painters, Glaziers,
Rope, Cordage, Twine &c.,—makers of,
Sugar Refiners and Boilers,
Salt-makers,
Stone-cutters, Quarry-men and Masons,
Ship and Boat-builders, Ship-riggers, Caulkers, &c.,
Tin-workers,
Tobacco Manufacturers,
Tailors,
Woollen-spinners and Weavers,
Wagon-makers,

The object to be attained by the completion of this return, is simply the enumeration of the persons engaged in the trades classified in such general arrangement as above. No very detailed estimate could perhaps be formed, from the information which it would afford, but enough would be learned to exhibit the relative importance of the various occupations prevalent in the country. The facility with which such a return could be procured, is a powerful reason for proposing it.

PLACE OF NATIVITY

OF THE

POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES

Little more than two hundred years have elapsed since the Saxon race established the first efficient settlement in this country. The United States, as a nation, has no fabulous age, which she peoples with men and monarchs to vindicate her ancient blood; but dating her existence from a tangible epoch, and continuing to expel the prior inhabitants, and with them all traces and history of a previous settlement, she points with decision to the Puritans of the North, to the Cavaliers of the South, and the friends of the Middle States, as of English blood; and turns to the remoter South, and to the interior of her extended territory, for the citizens of Continental extraction. But if the romance of history is lost, it is only that its philosophy may be more apparent, and if shadowy traditions are superseded by the realities of history, the value of the substitute amply atones for the absence of that legendary lore which forms the basis of all European history, where the old chronicler, like Macbeth, in the vision of the kings, always sees,

> "Another yet! a seventh; I'll see no more.
> And yet the eighth appears, who bears a glass,
> Which shows me many more."

In addition to this remarkable difference in the histories of Europe and America, there is another which deserves to be noticed; that is, that the same process which led to the first settlement of the country, continues effective to the present day; and instead of having distinct periods of history, like the Roman, Saxon, Danish, and Norman Governments of England, America was peopled, not by conquest and settlement at different times, but by a gradual influx of the redundant population of Europe into her territory; and whereas, the various conquests of England created different epochs in her history, which were determinate and appreciable in the extent of their influence upon her laws, language and habits, the gradual immigration into this country, still continued, by constantly, though imperceptibly, varying and influencing the character of her inhabitants, presents some very interesting features to the historian.

Although we are thus exposed to some peculiar difficulties in estimating the principles which are operating to form the American character, the subject becomes invested with interest as it increases in intricacy, and the problems which arise from the constantly influencing effects of immigration, are of especial value to the student of national character. We are not aware that we have ever seen an account, or rather an estimate of the descent of the present population of America, though it would be found valuable in itself, and interesting in some of the collateral principles which it would develope. In the early history of the country, we find the English, the Dutch, and the Swedes, struggling for ascendency in the North, the English, the French and the Spaniards effecting

settlements on the Southern coast, and the gradual extension of the English sway over the greater part of the territory, until, freed from the mother country, the United States, in one general appellative, embraced the English, French, Danish, Swedish, and Spanish citizen. The proportion which these bore to each other at the Revolution, or on the acquisition of the lands on the Mississippi, we are utterly unable to determine, and though the interest would be very great were such information in existence, we must forego the pleasure which it might have afforded us, and turn to the condition of the country at the present time.

At the Revolution, the bands which united the different settlements to Europe, were severed, and, according to Gen. Washington, "we kept steadily in our view that which appears to us the greatest interest of every true American, the consolidation of our union, in which is involved our prosperity, felicity, safety, perhaps our national existence;" and at that time the American nation became one people. Had the first measure of Government been to prohibit the immigration of foreign citizens, the data on which the Philosophical historian would have proceeded would have been determinate and easy; but, on the other hand, the freest courtesies were extended to all, and, in the language of Jefferson, "a temple was erected to freedom, at Washington, where all people were invited to come and worship." From the policy of her Government, the freedom of her institutions, and the extent of her territory, America has long been the haven to which the European peasant directed his hopes, and thousands are yearly crowding to the

shores of this Republic. If we have to regret that, at the time of the Revolution, no note was taken of the classes of society which, by that act, were blended into one; and if we have to regret, that since those stirring times, no attention has been attracted to the subject, it is to be hoped that another decimal enumeration of the people will not take place without such clear and satisfactory information being afforded, as the nature of the inquiry will admit of.

It were needless to refer to the columns in the last census of the number of aliens in the United States, as affording any criterion of the number of foreign born inhabitants, as there is a strong disposition to misrepresent the return on the part of the alien, who wishes to have the right of citizenship secured to himself, and the number reported at the last census, as in the whole country, was only one hundred thousand, while the foreigners who arrived here in one year, were 76,000, which shows the greatest discrepancy. Indeed we are strongly inclined to suspect, although the wording of the interrogation is ambiguous, that the male inhabitants who were disqualified from voting by reason of their alienism, were those only who are enumerated under this head. We have no means of satisfying ourselves on this subject, but refer as an indirect proof of the error of the last census, to the returns of the city of New-York. By the census of 1830, the reported aliens were about one-eleventh of the population, and by the report of interments in that city for 1837, we find that one-fourth were foreign born inhabitants. Now it is impossible to suppose that the greater mortality of the foreign population will account for this difference, and that

the numbers who become citizens, swell up the deficiency, as few women take the oaths, and children of course, unless they are introduced very young, must be accounted aliens till they attain majority. From these indirect proofs, we might be permitted to consider the returns as very defective, to establish which, we may refer to some other criteria. The number of reported aliens in 1830, was 109,832, and as none can become citizens till they have resided five years, of course that number ought to have included all the immigrants, during the previous period of five years. In 1836 however, there were about 76,000 foreigners landed on these shores, that number multiplied by 5, would give 380,000, and supposing 1-6th to have died in the course of that period, would have left 316,000 as the number, who during the period of five years, (taking 1836 as a criterion,) had entered this country by the ports alone, whereas it is well known that thousands come by way of Canada, and also that many settle under the protection of the American government, without becoming naturalized citizens. We have no very recent returns of the number of immigrants into Quebec, but in 1831, it was 51,746, of which one half are supposed to have entered into the States.

In the city of Newark, New-Jersey, with a population in 1835, of 20,000 persons, the foreign born inhabitants, were to the native, as 1 to 4.6, which is certainly a very large proportion, though at the same time, very far above the proportion, usual, even in manufacturing towns. But enough has been said to show that the number of reported aliens at the taking of the last census, was far below the actual number,

as the small proportion of the people which they constituted, falls much below the lowest estimate which can be formed of their actual number, not much above 1-4th, and from several indirect proofs, we would be inclined to compute the number of foreigners not naturalized, in this country, at 400,000 persons. To show that the subjects have already been discussed without satisfactory information, we may add that Dr. Seybert, estimates the average number of immigrants arriving in this country, between the years 1790 and 1810, as about 6000 annually, while Mr. Booth, during the latter 10 years of that period, states the number of immigrants to have been 645,389, or about 64,000 annually.

The following table is compiled from the Treasury reports, and shows the number of immigrants who arrived here in 1836, though there is no general table appended to the report, and in making out this one, we found some inaccuracy, which we could not correct, in the returns from the port of Philadelphia, and therefore we altered them to make the result correspond with the aggregate number.

List of Passengers arriving in the United States in 1836.

Extracted Doc. 163, Executive Reports, 1837.

DISTRICTS	MALES.	FEMALES.	United States.	Great Britain and Ireland.	British America.	France.	Germany and North of Europe.	Mexico and Texas.	Holland.	Spain and Portugal.	West Indies.	Italy and the Mediterranean.	Switzerland.	South America.	Cuba.	Other places.	TOTAL
Passamaquoddy	1581	445	555	442	1028	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	2026
Portland	1327	700	396	1168	443	....	....	....	....	....	16	....	....	....	4	....	2027
Portsmouth	2	2	2	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	4
Boston	1989	1114	572	1453	753	21	26	1	172	10	26	28	....	14	12	170	3258
New Bedford	25	13	7	10	7	....	14	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	38
Dighton	28	16	....	23	21	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	44
Edgarton	6	....	4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	....	....	6
Newburyport	5	....	3	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	5
Marblehead	3	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	3
Providence	26	21	9	28	9	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	47
Newport	12	10	6	....	3	....	8	....	3	....	....	1	....	....	....	1	22
New-Haven	32	17	12	13	....	....	2	....	....	7	....	1	....	13	....	1	49
New London	9	6	1	14	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	15
New York	36,529	21,399	2039	37,097	443	2574	14,575	....	86	166	312	93	442	87	....	14	57,928
Perth Amboy	307	187	...	494	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	494
Philadelphia	1558	949	360	1799	42	20	70	....	12	78	35	50	....	15	26	....	2507
Baltimore	3698	2431	71	326	....	....	5690	....	....	3	35	....	3	....	....	1	6129
Alexandria	19	3	....	14	6	1	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	....	22
Norfolk	100	63	3	113	1	....	34	....	....	....	12	....	....	....	....	....	163
Richmond	106	40	....	....	....	....	146	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	146
Washington	2	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
Newbern	4	1	1	....	....	1	....	....	....	....	3	....	....	....	....	....	5
Charleston	234	94	...	143	....	10	14	....	....	....	137	....	....	1	23	....	328
New Orleans	3795	1171	....	470	....	1705	704	1495	28	3	66	....	....	2	488	5	4966
Key West	40	9	9	...	....	....	1	....	....	5	34	....	....	....	....	....	49
	51.437	28.691	4050	43,613	2756	4332	21,284	1496	201	372	678	173	445	137	553	193	80,283

We append as interesting, another calculation of the proportion which the immigrants of different ages under 40, bear to the whole number, by which it will be seen that the infant females are much more nu-

Under 5.		5 to 10.		10 to 15.		15 to 20.		20 to 25.		25 to 30.		30 to 35		35 to 40		Upward of 40.		Dif-ful.
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	
6.07	10.87	4.97	8.97	5.17	9.19	9.38	13.27	9.5	21.18	6.61	21.80	13.60	10.15	9.40	6.43	5.71	9.44	10.10	1.36	.2

merous than the infant males, that the adult males in their turn greatly outnumber the adult female immigrants. These isolated tables are of little value, except as showing the kind of information which may be extracted from the custom-house reports regarding immigrants, and we shall therefore not comment further upon them.

And further, it is but fit and proper, that the number and influence of the foreign population should be known. We are aware that in the recent political excitement, the cry of "native citizen," has been heard, and made the rallying word of a party in the States, and that the newspaper press of that party have been loud in their attacks upon the foreigners settled in the country. This we may be told is mere party zeal, and written with a view to political effect, rather than national feeling, and this we believe to be true, but it must be remembered that one of the most arbitrary laws on the statute book of modern nations, was passed by the Congress of the United States, by the provisions of which bill, the President might order dangerous or suspected aliens to depart out of the territory of the United States, by which no overt act being necessary, but merely exciting the suspicions of the President was held to be a sufficient crime. This may have been proper and necessary when proposed, and the propriety of it we do not pretend to discuss; but the same causes may render it equally expedient on a future occasion, and should the Congress of the United States not be informed of the number of persons resident in this country, on whose freedom and whose property they are called to decide?

Again, it were interesting and useful, to trace the influence of foreign education and habits upon the community. In the year 1836, the foreign immigrants added about 1-7th to the natural increase of the country. Now it is evident that an infusion to this extent must exercise a powerful influence upon the habits, manners, religion, and prevailing feelings of the whole population, *cœlum non animum mutant qui trans mare currunt.* McCulloch mentions the ready reception of foreigners, as one of the means of promoting manufactures, and it cannot be doubted but that a large proportion of the manufactures carried on in the Middle States, are supported by foreign labour. But it is not merely in the economical point of view, that this question is inviting, for the political and manufacturing interests sink into insignificance, when contrasted with the moral influence such a cause exerts on the community, a cause which it were well accurately to mark and determine, and it were proper, while we encourage foreign capital and labour, to develope the resources of the country, that they should be restrained from lowering the high tone of morality and religion which should pervade the community at large. The question therefore of the influence of the introduction of foreigners, which can only be determined by an accurate account of their number, presents many interesting aspects, whether as regarded in a political, social, or economical point of view. And it must be remembered, that not only the proportion which the foreign population bears to the native is interesting, but also the differences in the foreign population themselves, are of great value. Some do, some do

not speak the language, some have been accustomed to forms of government more or less free, enjoying the right of trial by jury, and freedom of religious worship, while others have been nurtured under despotic sway, without enjoying, and we may almost add, without the power of appreciating the blessings of civil and religious liberty. Of the 21,000 German immigrants who arrived here in 1836, probably not 10 could speak the English language, and when we consider how soon a foreign settler may become a citizen, it is certainly well to know the extent of mixture which the constant immigration is infusing into the American people. There are 4,332 French immigrants reported, and though not a large number when contrasted with the population of the country, yet when it is remembered that they almost always form an increase to the city population, their influence on the manners, tastes and habits of the inhabitants, be it for weal or wo, must be considerable. Again, the number of British subjects settled in this country is very great, and they are necessarily of a class who incorporate more readily with the native population, than any other description of immigrants. If we were correct in estimating the number of foreign born inhabitants, not naturalized, in the United States, at more than 400,000 persons, those of British extraction, make, we believe, about half of that number. There are sometimes slight causes for the dissatisfaction expressed at the great number of British and Irish, who crowd to these shores, but we believe no permanent feeling of that kind, pervades the community at large, and when we consider that the works of national improvement are almost all aided, if not

supported by British capital, and that these hardy and needy immigrants perform the labour required to render that capital profitable, and that it is to the gigantic system of internal improvements that this country owes its rapid advances; few would be willing to assert that the foreign labour introduced, is other than a great and permanent benefit, and the desire of every true friend of America should be to render this influx of foreigners twice blessed, by aiding them to better themselves and increase their comforts, and enabling the resources of the country to be better unfolded. But whatever may be the prevalent feeling of the community, regarding the influx of foreigners, it were certainly a just and proper subject of inquiry for Government to enter upon, as if there are any dangers apprehended to the safety of the body politic from this source, the public should be apprized of its actual condition, and if, on the other hand, the influx of foreign labour, is only synonymous with the introduction of wealth into the country, the politician and the statesman should know the influence of such a powerful agent.

Turning from the foreign population, how interesting and valuable would it be to know the place of nativity of the American born inhabitants. When the condition and prospects of this country are considered, and the peculiar constitution which binds into one whole, so many free and separate states, while upon this union the increase of wealth and the maintenance of the present sources of prosperity depend, there is no question which we can consider, more interesting and more conducive to the true interests of the public, than to determine the

place of birth of each inhabitant. After the rudeness of the feudal ages began to give way before the influence of commerce and trade, and after the various legal or extortionate imposts of passage, pontage, lastage, stallage and blackmail, had fallen into disuse, no general system of passports was organized in England, but all were allowed, under some general restrictions, to move to what part of the country they might prefer, without requiring formal and express permission. This has, save in time of war, been long the case in England, and the same usage was transplanted into this country, and the utmost freedom of unrestrained intercourse has always prevailed—arising from this, and the influence which the union of the colonial provinces into one federal republic has exercised upon the feelings of the people, a large and constant emigration has continued from the Eastern and Middle States to the South and West; and feeling few local predilections, the American citizen casts his eye over the extent of the whole territory, for the spot where he shall settle his family, or where he shall cast his bread upon the waters. The feeling of local attachment which exercises so strong a sway over some European nations, does not exist to the same extent in this country, but is merged in a national patriotism, and the settler looks rather to the creation of fortune, and the formation of fresh sources of pleasure, in some part of the West or South, than to the perpetuation of the attachments and associations of his earlier youth. The absence of these attachments, and the absolute freedom enjoyed by all, have mutually tended to promote the spirit of enterprise and the desire of change, and in

many districts of this country, the youth no sooner reach manhood than "receiving their share of the inheritance they go into a far country." This state and usage of society naturally suggests two subjects of contemplation, the one moral and social, the other political and national. It is with the latter alone that we have to do, and hope to make it appear that the emigrating habits of the people by creating a community of interests tend materially to strengthen the Union. Previously to the difficulties between the mother country and the colonists, and even during their early commencement, there was a good deal of ill-will and jealousy among the different states, and the general sympathy was only brought out when open resistance had been sometime made to the British Government. New-York had disputes with Vermont on the north, and New-Jersey on the south, as to the extent and limits of her territory; Massachusetts and her dependency, were by no means in harmony; and Virginia, with her contest with the Indians, and aggressions of the French on the Ohio, presented numerous distractions; but no sooner had the tocsin of war sounded, than these minor difficulties were forgotten, and the common foe became the common object of reproach and opposition. The din of war passed away, and with it the turmoil of the camp, and the exhausted country gradually and peacefully began to cultivate the arts and appliances necessary to its new state of existence. And with the return of peace, and the ultimate establishment of a confederated government, the difficulties which presented themselves ceased to excite the same angry feelings, and the liberal conduct of Massachusetts to Maine,

of Connecticut to Ohio, and of Virginia towards Kentucky, seem to have been the harbinger of a better state of things. The rivalry of the different states began to flow in a better channel; and the zeal with which the interests of each republic were pursued, formed the only apparent subject of competition; a general intercourse took place, trade among the different states was by the federal constitution declared unrestricted; and the union of interest and the cultivation of social courtesies, have gradually levelled down all sectional difficulties, and the North and the South, the East and the West, feel themselves linked together in one vast brotherhood.

Since the erection of the general government, the number of new states, which may be called the descendants of the old, which have been added to the Union may be reckoned ten; and the peculiar connexion which subsists between the thriving progeny, and the no less thriving parents, is one of especial harmony and interest. But who can trace the interests in their detail which bind these states together? and who can estimate the influence which the migratory character of the population exercises upon the social compact? In the west there is the hope of the parent who lives on his wonted farm in the east; in some southern city the son transacts the business consigned to him by his father in the north; and this constant union of interest with the ties of connexion presents in our mind a barrier which it is impossible for difference in opinion or party politics ever completely to surmount. And it is to tell the extent of this influence, and, at the same time, to

mark the developement of character under phases which differences in local condition naturally create, that we suggest this inquiry. The strength of the political union in this country will be more fully understood when the moral throe, which a separation would occasion, is estimated; and this strength can easily be determined by ascertaining the birth-place of every inhabitant in the Union, which would be a work of some labour, but of no great inherent difficulty.

We have spoken of the advantage and interest of procuring returns of the birth-place of the foreigners who are denizened in this country, and of the utility of obtaining information regarding the migrations of the native-born inhabitants. In turning, now, to the other class who are included in our population, we feel that we enter upon ground which may by some be considered delicate. In desiring to know the place of birth of the coloured population, there are moral as well as political ends in view. Whatever may be the feelings which agitate the community regarding the question of slavery, the statist need take no part in the controversy: he endeavours on every topic to arrive at facts: he does not express opinions, but, having calmly recorded and dispassionately examined the data he may have acquired, he hands them to the statesman or the political economist, to be the basis of future legislation or the groundwork of future argument. Now, we wish to point out two very important subjects on which an enumeration of the place of birth of the black population, whether free or slave, will throw considerable light. And,

1st. It has been asserted that the coloured popula-

tion in the northern states, where slavery has been abolished, flocked to the large towns, and, leaving the country occupations to which many of them were accustomed, have become a burden to the community and a disgrace to the country. By this return we will be able to trace the extent to which those born in the country have emigrated to the towns, and the probable effect which emancipation at the south would exercise upon the coloured labourers. And at a time like the present, when the feelings of the community are aroused, and violent and unfounded assertions are made by either party, it were well to have a calm and philosophical inquiry carried on, which might dispel some error, and tend to calm the prevailing excitement, and, by affording some data for argument, might operate with a very beneficial effect upon the community at large.

2dly. By means of the enumeration carried on through the slave-holding states, we would learn the amount and extent of the domestic slave trade in this country. Amidst the ignorance which prevails on this subject, the most contradictory assertions are freely made. On this topic, the request of the statist is merely for information, and in making it he feels that he cannot be considered as trespassing upon private rights or national safety; and certainly there is no reason why the general government should decline procuring information, relative either to a source of wealth or a source of crime; and if, in prosecuting such inquiries, the wakefulness of any sensitive portion of the community is aroused, government owe it to themselves not needlessly to

excite apprehension, while they judiciously pursue the subject of their inquiries.

The returns which we have proposed would therefore afford us some satisfactory information on

1st. The immigration into this country, the number and general distribution of the foreigners who settle here, their language and general character.

2d. The principles which regulate the migration to various parts of the country among the native inhabitants, the mixture of the different classes, and extent of intercourse likely to arise from the distribution of the people.

3d. The actual condition of the coloured population in the United States, as evinced by their migration or transportation.

The plan which we would propose following in regard to this enumeration would be either to take an account of the birth-place of each person, according to the state in which it was situated; or, if that was considered as too laborious, to divide the Union into four great sections, Eastern, Middle, Western and Southern, and classify them according to these sections. But we earnestly hope that this plan will not be followed, and we have only suggested it in order to prevent the contraction being effected without an opposing voice. The great importance of this return has yet to be spoken of; and in referring, as we do below, to the flood of light which it would let in upon the subjects of "vital statistics," "criminal statistics," and some other kindred topics, we hope to show that its whole value consists in its minuteness. Discarding, therefore, the plan proposed of dividing the Union into sections, we have recourse

to the only other mode, viz., *of reporting the state in which each inhabitant was born.*

Proceeding next with the foreign population, we would make some general classification of the countries from which the immigrants come, being guided by some affinities in the nations to which they belong, as it will be necessary to condense the tables, and not to insert the inhabitant of each separate country in a separate column. In the subjoined table perhaps the classification may answer, and the deputy marshals might be required to fill up the columns according to the place of birth of each individual, and in addition to the many advantages which would otherwise flow from it, it would afford a means of checking the enumeration by the ages of the inhabitants, and detecting any error in the returns. The columns for foreigners might be made in duplicate, so that those who were foreign-born and not naturalized would be distinct from those who were foreign-born and citizens of the United States. And, further, these returns would show the differences which exist in the practice of accepting the right of citizenship, which is said to vary much in different nations—all the Irish, and but few of the French immigrants being said to do so. These are questions of considerable interest; but after inserting a proposed schedule, we shall pass on to topics of more real value.

Maine.	
New Hampshire.	
Massachusetts.	
Rhode Island.	
Connecticut.	
Vermont.	
And the other States and territories.	
Great Britain.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
Ireland.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
British America.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
France.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
Germany and Countries bounded by the German Ocean.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
Switzerland.	NAT.
	ALIEN
Italy and the Mediterranean.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
Spain and Portugal.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
Mexico and Texas.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
West Indies and Cuba.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
South America.	NAT.
	ALIEN
Jews.	NAT.
	ALIEN.
Other nations.	NAT.
	ALIEN.

This return, faithfully complied with, will enable us to acquire accurate details regarding the following subjects, in addition to the other useful information already referred to:

1st. It will enable us to examine the vital statistics, and the actual state of the health and longevity in this country, which are utterly unknown at present. The way in which the returns have hitherto been made out renders it impossible to determine the relative healthfulness of any one district of country, as it is impossible to estimate or ascertain the drain which emigration has made upon any region, and thus to determine what the actual increase by birth or decrease by mortality has been. We are well assured, for example, that an old settled state, with good soil, good climate, and good water, where the forests are open to the sunbeam, and the marshes drained of stagnant water, is more healthful than one of those western virgin states, where the soil teems with fever as well as with vegetation, where the settlers, in the progress of acquiring a happy home, have to submit to all the privations of a forest life, amidst the dews and suns of the fruitful west. By

turning to the population tables of 1830, we find the increase of the state of New Jersey, for the previous ten years, to have been only at the rate of 16,6494 per centum; while Ohio, labouring under all these drawbacks, increased at the rate of 61,3086 per cent. This, if taken as a criterion of the health of the country, is notoriously false, as the actual increase of New Jersey went to swell the apparent increase of Ohio; but it serves as an illustration to show the nature of information which the present state of the returns affords. By knowing the place of birth of each inhabitant, we will be able to refer each to his own state, and with great certainty contrast the different sections.

2d. It will enable us to determine the often-broached question, whether there is more crime among the foreign than the native population, and, if so, how much greater is the excess of crime among the immigrants, as it is evidently impossible to determine the question till the number of foreigners in the country is known. And,

3d. It will enable us to determine the proportion which the native poor bear to the foreign.

These questions are all of such importance that we shall devote a separate chapter to each, and must earnestly hope that the plan of having this return complied with may be thought expedient, as the amount of information it would furnish would be immense.

VITAL STATISTICS.

If it is necessary that the direct interest which the General Government has in every inquiry should be apparent, before it can constitutionally make it the subject of examination, we would under this head, refer to the Pension list of the United States, as intimately connected with vital statistics. Between the years 1790 and 1833, the expense of the pensions, granted for services or losses during the Revolutionary and the late War, amounted to $24,000,000, and this sum has been paid out without gaining any information as to the expectation of life in this country. The annual expense of pensions is still considerable, and in the event of another war, would again be much increased; and surely it were well and fitting for Government to have some data on which to determine the value of compensation granted. In 1818, every officer and private, who had served in the war of the Revolution, and then stood in need of assistance, was entitled to a certain pension during the remainder of his life; did the Secretary of War know the value of this grant? did Congress estimate its value, or were there any means of doing so?

The question of the expectation of life is one of great value and interest, and one which, did our time and limits permit, we would willingly enter into at length. Even in England, the subject is not by any means clearly understood, and the different tables in

use will not stand the test of accurate examination. The calculations called the Northampton tables are little to be depended on, as they were framed by Dr. Price, who entertained the opinion that the population of England was diminishing, and in 1780, amounted only to four and a half millions. "Governments," says McCulloch, "which alone have the means of framing such tables on an adequate scale, and with the necessary precautions, have been singularly inattentive to their duty in this respect. And until a very few years since, when Mr. Finlaison was employed to calculate tables of the value of annuities, from the ages of the nominees in public tontines, and of individuals on whose lives Government had granted annuities, all that had been done in this country, to construct tables of mortality, and by consequence, to lay a foundation on which to construct the vast fabric of life insurance, was the work of a few private persons, who had of course but a limited number of observations to work upon." However, in a late act of parliament, ample provision has been made for obtaining all the requisite information, upon which to construct tables of the value of life, as the number of births and deaths, the age at death, and the disease are all to be recorded, though that of course throws no light upon the value of life in America.

In this country, it is not known whether the climate, with its rapid alternations of heat and cold, is, on the whole, more baneful to the human constitution than the moister atmosphere of England; and even the simpler question of *longevity* cannot be settled by the returns as made out on former occa-

sions, until the rate of increase be previously determined. Now we have already shown, that the true ratio of increase cannot be ascertained, till the number of foreigners be known, as, in one year, they augmented the rate of increase by one-seventh, and therefore little can be built upon any examination of the census. We can only follow this interesting subject a little way, and at most hope to exhibit the want of satisfactory information, which exists upon such an extensive topic; but in these few remarks, we hope to correct some errors prevalent regarding it.

Longevity.—In contrasting the length of life in this country, and in England, we shall take the Government returns in England for 1821, the census of the United States for the whole country, and for New Jersey for 1830, which will afford accurate details from which to form a table, exhibiting the number of persons at every age from 5 to 100 years, in each of these countries, reduced to proportional parts of 1000, which is supposed to be the whole number living.

	No. of persons at each age in 1000 inhabitants. England.		No. of persons at each age in 1000 inhabitants. United States.		No. of persons at each age in 1000 inhabitants. New Jersey.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Under 5, ...	153.6	144.	181.7	178.2	164.4	162.
5 and under 10,	134.7	126.8	146.	145.1	139.	138.5
10 " " 15,	117.1	105.8	125.	123.5	129.5	122.9
15 " " 20,	98.9	99.5	107.	115.3	112.4	113.6
20 " " 30,	146.7	167.5	178.6	177.6	177.	174.7
30 " " 40,	115.2	120.7	110.6	107.4	112.9	112.5
40 " " 50,	93.6	93.1	68.6	68.8	72.4	75.1
50 " " 60,	66.4	65.4	42.8	43.2	46.2	49.4
60 " " 70,	44.9	46.3	25.2	25.4	29.	32.5
70 " " 80,	22.3	23.1	10.7	11.2	13.2	14.6
80 " " 90,	5.7	6.7	2.9	3.3	3.5	4.
90 " " 100,	.4	.6	.4	.5	.3	.4
100 and upwards,	....	....	....	....	....	....

From this table, it would seem that the proportion of persons alive in after life, is greater in England than in this country; and that while in 1000 inhabi-

tants, there would in England be 93 alive, between the ages of 40 and 50, in the United States at the same age, there would only be 68. But we would be liable to considerable error, if we concluded, from this table, that the expectation of life in England was greater than here. When a population is increasing rapidly, innately (which word seems suitable to express the increase from natural sources, exclusive of immigration) it is evident, that the proportion of adult to infant population will be less than in one in which the increase is slight, and therefore if 1000 persons be selected and apportioned according to a scale of their ages, a larger number must be placed under the earlier ages, and fewer will remain to be distributed among the more advanced years. From this, it will appear, that we have the results which might be expected in the above table, the number under five years of age being, in England, 153, leaving 847 persons to be distributed among the remaining ages; while in this country, 181 were under 5 years of age, leaving only 819 persons to be distributed among the remaining ages, which difference will at first sight appear to exhibit an increased mortality in this country. If the innate increase in the two countries was the same, of course the result would be different, and the table would exhibit a much greater mortality here than in England, but the rate of increase here is so much more rapid than there, as completely to account for the discrepancy.

Again, the tables before us, afford accurate materials for another calculation, viz.: the per-centage of loss which the population in the two countries sustains every ten years. In this examination, we take

the state of New Jersey, and the returns from Scotland, as the ratio of increase nearly corresponds, being in the former, 17½ per cent. in ten years, and in the latter, 16 per cent. The following calculation is only made regarding the males, want of time alone prevents our completing it, as the deductions are important, and worthy of being followed out.

	NEW-JERSEY CENSUS, 1830			SCOTLAND CENSUS, 1821.		
	Total No. of males alive at the period indicated.	Loss thereon in each successive 10 years.	Loss per centum in each successive 10 years.	Total No. of males alive at the period indicated.	Lossthereon in each successive 10 years.	Loss per centum in each successive 10 years.
Under 10	46.275			263.254		
10 and under 20	36.868	9.407	20.33	210.502	52.752	20.04
20 " " 30	27.001	9.867	27.04	137.645	72.857	34.56
30 " " 40	17.231	9.770	36.19	107.107	30.538	32.18
40 " " 50	11.013	6.188	35.92	82 695	24.412	22.80
50 " " 60	7.053	3.990	36.19	60.014	22.671	27.41
60 " " 70	4.458	2.595	36.75	42.309	17.705	19.52
70 " " 80	2.021	2.437	54.66	19.977	22.322	52.76
80 " " 90	.534	1.487	73.57	5.377	14.600	73.08
90 " " 100	.44	.490	91.76	.620	4.757	88.45
100 and upwards.	.1	.43	97.73	.40	.580	93.55

As the rate of increase in these two countries does not vary much, the proportion of loss every ten years should not materially differ, and accordingly, we find that until the age of 30 and after 70, the rapidity of decrease nearly corresponds, and it becomes a question whether the greater decrease which occurs between 30 and 70 is to be accounted for by the extent of emigration or the difference of climate. Now as this table is formed by distributing the same population into the different columns, and not by considering the successive ages to be deduced from the preceding ones, there is evidently an error in its construction; but as the ratio of increase in both countries correspond, our not having made any allowance for the increase of population will not materially affect the comparison of the two. Assuming that the mortality

in New Jersey is equal to that of Scotland, the number of inhabitants, which 46,275 children would infer, would be 162,287, instead of 152,534, being nearly 10,000 more than the present male population, a number which we are convinced is much too small an allowance for all the Jersey-born inhabitants settled in other states.

From these tables, however, it is evident, that the population returns can never be made the basis of any statistical inquiries till the ratio of innate increase be determined, and until the place of birth of the inhabitants be recorded, that cannot be done. Some very interesting details might, however, be obtained regarding the relative longevity of the two races in this country, although it is said that the aged blacks are not often to be trusted in the report of their advanced years. The comparative longevity of different European nations is very imperfectly understood, and great error arises from the ratio of increase being overlooked in the estimate, for, in Norway, where the population is stationary, the number which those upwards of 70 present, by no means proves that the health of the people corresponded therewith.

But as these more general inquiries into the condition of the population, are impeded at every hand by defective information, it is to be hoped that the more enlightened views of Government will, at length embrace the requisite details, and that the census of the population, besides a simple enumeration, will embrace an inquiry into the births, deaths, and marriages in the United States, and other important subjects. Till this is done, it were needless

to attempt to conjecture the present vital statistics of this country; and nothing can satisfactorily be done by individual States, as the nature of the inquiry should embrace the whole Union, and be of a general not of a local character.

As the most convenient formula at hand, we shall follow the arrangement of McCulloch, in his account of the population of Great Britain, which will show the topics which are considered suitable for investigation and inquiry.

1st. Section. *Races of Inhabitants.*—We have already fully referred to this subject, which is of much more vital importance in this country than in England; forming there a part of her past history only, here a powerful cause of present action. At every hand, however, we must again remark, that the importance of an inquiry into the place of nativity of the inhabitants, will appear, and no subject of investigation suggested inthis Chapter can be satisfactorily examined until such information is obtained.

2d. Sec. *Progress of Population.*—The period in which an extensive population can double itself, is uncertain. Malthus estimates it, under the most favourable circumstances, at 15 years; the period in which, since 1790, the population of this country has doubled itself, is about 25 years, and is the greatest increase on record of the rapid augmentation of a community. It were needless to notice the various discussions which this subject has given rise to, as, although ample materials are at hand for exposing the errors which have been propagated, no accurate data exist to enable us to substitute others more capable of standing the test of examination. The ques-

tion, as discussed, lies in the narrow compass of what is the number of immigrants—are they, or are they not, sufficient to affect materially the ratio of increase of the population? No satisfactory answers can be given to such queries, and therefore, till rigid examination determines the data, speculation on the subject is idle. In a former chapter, we have shown that at times the immigration is very great; but sufficient information is not obtained to know the proportion in which it adds to the increase of the population of the country.

In the statistical tables presented to Congress, in 1835, by Mr. Forsyth, much labour has been expended in calculating the ratio of increase in each State for each decimal period of enumeration. Whatever political object such calculations may subserve, we are unable to believe that the least advantage to a scientific examination of the theories of the increase of population would follow them, as the result only shows the effects which various causes have exerted upon the individual States, without attempting to discriminate the different features which distinguish these causes. As we have already instanced the cases of Ohio and New-Jersey, we may again refer to them as examples; the increase in the one, in the 10 years previous, being at the rate of 61 per cent.; while in the other it was only 16. No one would conclude that the augmentation in the former case was all by innate increase; while in the healthy character of the climate and soil, no one could expect to trace the cause of the very moderate addition to the population of the other. It is vain, therefore, to attempt to make any deduction as to the actual

healthfulness of the different States, or to attempt to procure a knowledge of the causes which, in the various sections of the country, promote or retard the progress of population.

It were easy to speculate on the general principles which may be supposed to promote or retard the increase of a community; but practical results would follow from a detailed examination alone. Among the causes of increase, which, in this country, are most powerfully efficient, might be mentioned the extent of unimproved yet productive territory, the facility of intercourse with the more settled districts, the advantages of a climate peculiarly favourable to certain agricultural productions, and the demand for labour which such circumstances create. If we were asked what the causes are which tend to limit the population of any section of the country, "we would answer all those circumstances in our constitution and fortunes here on earth, which check increase; some of them arising immediately from the virtues and some from the vices of man, some resting on the dictates of prudence, some on the law of necessity, some growing out of the constitution of our frames, some from the organization of society, some resulting from the great catastrophes in the physical world, and some purely of a moral quality."*

The returns we have already suggested, will enable us to decide with much accuracy, on the number of the population of each State, the result of innate increase; when it will be more easy to trace the causes which promote known results, than at present

* North American Review, vol. viii., p. 301.

to speculate on the subject, when neither the causes nor the results are ascertained.

One thing must ever be remembered when speaking of the progress of population, which is too generally overlooked, viz. that, the smaller the present number of inhabitants in a State, the greater will be the effect of immigration upon the ratio of increase. The population of the United States may now be so great, that the annual augmentation from the shores of Europe may very slightly alter the innate ratio of augmentation; but this is by no means the case when the newer States in the Union are referred to. The State of Michigan, at the last period of enumeration, contained only 31,639 persons, and probably that number will be found to be increased 200 per cent. in the interval of 10 years preceding the next census. Now it would not require a very large number of immigrants to effect this, and the same number would only alter the ratio of increase of the State of New-York about 3 per cent. This must never be overlooked, as the ratio of increase alone, unless the present population is at the same time considered, is liable to lead to very erroneous conclusions.

3D. SEC. *Density of the Population.*—The United States contain the most scattered population that has ever attained a high degree of civilization, and the advantages and disadvantages which flow from the sparseness of her settlement, it were easy to enumerate were they not sufficiently obvious. Darby estimates the number of inhabitants in this country to a square mile, as 31 66-100ths, about one tenth of the density of the population in England, and such a disparity must necessarily exercise a powerful influence

upon the habits of the community. From the census as made out last year, it were easy to calculate the density of the population, although the area of the several States, and more particularly of their sectional divisions, is not accurately known. In connection with this subject, and in order to facilitate the labours of the statist, it would be well to ascertain the number of dwelling houses in the United States. Since the year 1798 there has been no enumeration of them, and we have no data by which they can be estimated. At that period, exclusive of all those under $100 value, there were 276,659 inhabited houses, and, as showing the habits of the people and the number constituting a family, it would be interesting to have an accurate return made of all *the dwelling houses* in the United States, totally disregarding their value. There could, of course, be no difficulty in procuring a full account of these, which, as commonly the basis of several interesting estimates by foreign statists, would be serviceable here. It would show the average number of which each family consisted, which is, at present, a matter of conjecture.

4TH. SEC. *Population of Large Towns.*—This information can easily be procured without any increase of expense or additional trouble, by providing that no city, town, or incorporated village, be reported in connection with the adjacent country, being a regulation similar to that which provided, in the last census, that the boundaries of each county should be respected.

5TH. SEC. *Proportion of Males to Females.*—This is a subject which the information obtained from the

census of 1830 enables us accurately to examine, and the results it presents are curious, being different from the information which a similar examination of European tables affords. From whatever causes, the greater fatality which attends males in Europe, whether war, exposure, or emigration, keeps the females in excess, though it would seem that the male sex is always slightly in excess at birth; at least such is the result of all inquiries on the subject which have been made.

In England, for	100	male	births,	there	are	94.74	females.
In France,	100	"	"	"	"	96.	"
In New-Spain,*	"	"	"	"	"	98.	"
In Prussia,†	"	"	"	"	"	94.37	"
In Philadelphia,‡	"	"	"	"	"	93.35	"

Such, for some mysterious purposes, being the law of our nature, it is interesting to find that in this country the ratio is maintained through life, whereas in Europe the greater risk and casualty to which the males are exposed, have always more than counterbalanced the effect which such a difference would have. On this side of the Atlantic, however, such, by no means, seems to be the case; and the additional number of males at birth is maintained throughout life, as exhibited below:

In England, for	each	100	males,	there	are	103.1	females.
In France,	"	"	"	"	"	103.	"
In New-Spain,	"	"	"	"	"	95.	"
In the United States, in 1830,				"	"	97.12	"

Such are interesting facts, and would require very careful examination before the causes which produce them can be accurately determined; but the follow-

* Humbolt's New-Spain. † American Almanac. ‡ Bills of Mortality.

ing very curious table, which we have framed, throws some light upon the subject, as it would seem that all the States, from which emigration proceeded to a great extent, had a majority of females, while those to which the immigration flowed had always a majority of males.

STATES.	Ratio of increase in ten years — from 1820 to 1830.	Proportion which males bore to femal's were as 100 to the No. indicated below.
Maine,	33.9420	98.04
New Hampshire,	10.4775	104.84
Massachusetts,	16.8352	104.74
Connecticut,	8.4002	102.45
Rhode Island,	17.8913	106.52
Vermont,	19.1296	99 84
New-York,	40.5869	96.24
New-Jersey,	16.6494	90.30
Pennsylvania,	28.7885	96.74
Delaware,	4.1949	99.65
Maryland,	11.8691	97.50
Virginia,	15.1268	99.43
North Carolina,	12.7965	100.50
South Carolina,	8.6013	97.39
Georgia,	56.5713	93.63
Kentucky,	19.1290	93.83
Tennessee	57.6062	94.71
Ohio,	61.0083	90.14
Indiana,	132.8510	92.96
Mississippi,	67.0215	83.10
Illinois,	188.2818	88.98
Louisiana,	21.8825	79.08
Missouri,	105.0350	86.78
Alabama,	97.8347	88.80
Michigan,	264.8702	72.54
Arkansas,	104.0782	80.08

Now if such results follow emigration in this country, perhaps the same causes may be operating in Europe, and the causes which may tend, in some degree, to lower the proportion of males there, may increase it here, viz. the larger number of males who emigrate. It is satisfactory to think, that the chance of male life in this country is so much increased,

and whether it does not argue greater tranquillity and morality, is a question well open to discussion.

6TH. SEC. *Proportion of Births, Deaths, and Marriages.*—On this section we must express our views more fully than we have hitherto done, as the subjects alluded to are of very great importance, and regarding which nothing is known. In some of the cities, on the seaboard, registers are kept of the number of the births and marriages, and the number of interments are reported for the purpose of completing the bills of mortality; and in the census of the State of New-York, for 1835, the number of each of these is given, and the same practice may locally obtain elsewhere; but speaking of the country at large, we are warranted in saying, that no information, capable of affording any light to the statistical student, exists; and it is to supply this desideratum, that we now purpose to suggest a considerable addition to the number of those tables to be used in reporting the enumeration of the people in 1840. The information on the subject, which Mr. McCulloch treats of under this head, it is impossible to procure in this country, and even in England, although they have long had bills of mortality, and registers of the births and marriages, they are said to be so ill kept that no useful information can be gleaned from them. It is not practicable for this Government to attempt to imitate the example of the less extended European powers, and to establish permanent records of these occurrences in the several States; but at the time of taking the census, it were easy to acquire some information regarding the number of each of these events which have taken place within the previous

year. It is true, that it would be more satisfactory to procure a detail of all the births, deaths, and marriages which annually occur; but in the absence of such particular and continuous returns, it would be convenient and serviceable to procure them of the decimal years only. Now nothing could be more easy than for the assistant to inquire at each house, whether any of these events had occurred within the year previous to his visit. If the following schedule were added to that used in taking the enumeration, and the assistant allowed as much for each entry in these columns as he may be for each inhabitant enrolled, no difficulty, we apprehend, would be experienced in procuring the most satisfactory returns for the year 1840. *Births.*—The facility of obtaining returns of the number of infants born, distinguished according to their sex and colour, would be great, and those who were still-born might be distinguished from those born alive. In Prussia, rather more than three per cent. are found to be still-born, and in this country we understand the question is curious as regards the different races, a much smaller proportion of the coloured infants being born dead. By the detailed accounts of the births taken in connection with the return of the deaths, there are some general deductions to be obtained, relating to the ratio of increase and other similar topics.

The number of *Deaths* which take place, is likewise enveloped in the greatest obscurity.

In the State of New-York, the census of 1835, returns 1,102,658 males, and 1,071,859 female inhabitants, and 17,486 deaths among the former, and 15,280 among the latter. More properly however,

the number of deaths ought to be added to the number of persons returned, to obtain a correct estimate of the proportion of deaths which occur, which would make 1 death in 64 males, and 1 death in 71 females for the year. In the city of New-York, also, we have some satisfactory returns, by which we find the number of inhabitants to be 270,089, and the deaths 6,608, or one in 40. In contrasting these returns with the English bills of mortality, we find the advantage to be greatly on the side of this country. The average mortality in England for the five years preceding 1830, was 1 in 51; and the extremes vary from 1 in 64 in Cornwall to 1 in 41 in Middlesex; and in the city of Glasgow, 1 in 39.04 of the population were buried. It will be seen that the mean mortality in the state of New-York, is 1 in 67 1-2, in England, 1 in 51, and in the city of NewYork, 1 in 42, in the city of Glasgow, 1 in 39.04, which contrary to expectation, evinces a much greater degree of health in this country than in England. Whether however, this high standard would be maintained if the examination extended over the whole country, or even the whole of the farming States of the Union, premises do not warrant us to conclude; but the rapid increase of the population, may lead us to hope such is the case.

But apart from examinations of the mortality of this country, as compared with Europe, what is the comparative mortality of different districts of the country? Is the climate of the New-England States more healthy than that of the Middle States, or are they in their turn more healthful than the Western. Is the Alleghany ridge a barrier which prevents the

diseases incident to a maritime country from penetrating into the interior, or are diseases indigenous to the inland states more fatal than those prevalent on the coast? Such are the questions fraught with interest, which we would desire to ask, and we hope that means may be taken to ascertain the number of deaths which have occurred at every period of life, into which the people are divided, for the purpose of enumeration.

In several of the large cities, bills of mortality are taken which are interesting in a very high degree, and some of them are peculiarly valuable from the creditable manner in which they are kept, particularly the statistical tables of Dr. Dunnel, of the city of New-York, for 1838, as also the Philadelphia reports. These however, are not of any value as exhibiting the mortality in any of the rural districts, for the various elements that affect a city population, are not felt throughout the country at large. This particularly applies to the mortality among infants, and so peculiarly fatal to them, is the climate in the Atlantic cities, that one half the deaths which occurred in New-York, in 1836, were of infants under one year old, (49.06 per cent.)

Connected with this subject, it only remains for us to suggest the manner in which the returns of the deaths which may occur in the course of the year 1840 should be reported. It were of great value to the subject of life assurance, to have the ages of all persons who may die, reported, as it would enable the insurer to make very accurate estimates, not only of the value of each period of life, but of its value in each different section. Now this, we think, may be

very easily arranged; let the assistant note down the age of every deceased person in the column which embraces his age, and on the same table as he takes the enumeration of the living, and either use a different coloured ink to make the entry, or surround the number with a mark, [100]. This would save the unnecessary transmission of documents, and would not embarrass the assistant, while it would add to the statistical knowledge of the country to an inconceivable extent. It is from the apprehension that separate tables extended to their requisite length, would be objected to, that we now suggest this expedient, and we hope that no practical objection will arise to frustrate the undertaking. The returns so made out, would fully elucidate the whole subject in a manner which has never been attempted in any part of Europe, and besides throwing greater light on the principles of vitality generally, it would particularly exhibit the value of life, and periods of peculiar mortality among us.

Marriages. A simple enumeration of these, is all that is required, as from it the average number of children to a family, could easily be adduced. It will of course be necessary to prevent their being enumerated twice, and the following heading from the census of the State of New-York, may answer the desired end, viz: "The number of marriages occurring in the same family where the female married resided during the preceding year."* The wording of this might perhaps be simplified a little, but the principle of taking the number of females married in the course of the year, would obviate

* Revised Statutes, New-York, Tit. 6, Chap. III.

the difficulty to be apprehended from a double enumeration.

7th and 8th SECTIONS. The probable duration of life, and the proportion of ages to the population—of the former of these, we have already spoken in this chapter, under the head of longevity, and of the latter in an early part of this essay, when referring to the population returns.

Such are the several sections into which Mr. McCulloch divides his chapter on population, and particular information will be obtained relative to each division, if the returns we have already suggested, be complied with. And in addition to these subjects, there are several other topics connected with vital statistics, which will be much benefited by these inquiries; such as *Medical Topography* or the diseases incident and peculiar to each section, which has already received considerable attention in this country, and been ably treated of by Drs. Rush, Currie, and Marshall. But the limited sphere of one individual's observation, necessarily precludes the possibility of a comprehensive and enlarged survey of the whole country, and such general data would then be afforded as would enable the statist to make the necessary enumeration of the causes which affect the duration of human life. There is another subject upon which it may throw some, although not much light, namely, the prevalence of sickness in this country; as medical men from the estimated mortality of certain diseases, may be able for each death which may occur from them, to say how many probably have been incapacitated from labour by the same complaints. The number of sick in England, con-

stantly disabled from work, has been estimated at 600,000, which, supposing the same ratio to prevail in this country, would make the number of sick about 770,000; but we do not believe that much if any direct information can be procured on this subject. The returns we have now urged, differ in their character from those which we shall next suggest. Those are to be obtained from official men, while the present information is to be sought in the midst of the population, and by those engaged in taking the census of the living. To one more conversant with the science of vital statistics, many suggestions may occur of topics which we have omitted, but it is hoped that the more prominent subjects of inquiry, are here enumerated, together with the most advisable means of procuring the requisite information.

CRIME.

THERE is no subject connected with the Population and condition of this country, that has excited so much interest at home, or so much attention abroad, as the manner of punishing criminals, adopted in its various penitentiary systems, and the influence which the different modes of punishment exert upon society at large; and momentous though this question be, there is a lamentable want of accurate information regarding it, and notwithstanding the efforts of the Boston Prison Discipline Society, the most particular accounts are to be obtained from Reports made to the British and French Governments, by commissioners sent to this country for that purpose.

The moral principle which requires that the improvement of the character of the convict should be one of the ends attained by his punishment, is one of the features which characterize the age; and in consequence, example is no longer considered the only object of attention, when the effects of prison discipline are discussed. But the beneficial effect of the efforts made by the different states to improve the physical and moral condition of the convict, can never be fully exemplified until the General Government, by collecting all the requisite information, can show the results of the philanthropic exertions that have been made. That the examination of the subject is a proper field for this Government to enter upon, cannot be doubted by any one who considers

the reports that have been so industriously circulated, founded upon some French statistics, showing that education and crime advanced together; and in a government which depends for its continuance upon the morality and intelligence of the people, it surely is but fit and proper to estimate the improvement of the population. From various circumstances, no proper returns can be procured, unless the General Government, by employing its officers in the different states, requires sufficient data to be furnished to enable a correct comparison to be made.

There are several deficiencies, which have hitherto prevented an accurate account of the state of crime, its increase, and causes, in this country, from being made out, and these omissions Government could easily supply in the census next to be taken. The following information were much to be desired, could it be obtained.

I. Complete returns from several of the states, of the numbers committed to the State Prisons, classed according to their places of nativity, crimes, sentence, education, and health.

II. Returns of the state of the different county and city prisons, throughout the Union, with the numbers committed to them, and all the desiderata referred to in the above returns from the State prisons.

III. The differences in the penal codes of the various states, which, until known, effectually prevent all comparisons.

IV. Some information as to the migrations of the inhabitants of this country, or of the influx of foreigners, which information we have already proposed, should be supplied.

I. Under this head, all the information of which we are at present in possession is comprised, but generally in so very vague and unsatisfactory a manner, that no conclusions can be drawn from it. The mere number committed, in the course of a year, to the state prison, is easily obtained, but does not of itself furnish the statist with much information; though it is said that at least 4,000 persons are annually sentenced; and at least 10,000 are constantly excluded from all their civil rights. The following are the proportions of criminals in some of the states, according to Messrs. Beaumont and De Toqueville.

From 1827 to 1831, there have been sentenced:

1	native	of	Massachusetts	of 14,524	inhabitants.
1	"	"	Pennsylvania	" 11,821	"
1	"	"	New York State	" 8,610	"
1	"	"	Connecticut	" 8,269	"
1	"	"	Maryland	" 3,954	"

In reference to this comparative statement, Mr. Crawfurd justly observes, "neither can a judgment be correctly formed, from these accounts, of the relative proportion of crime in the different states. It is well known, that the population of New England ranks far superior to any other part of the Union, in morals and intelligence; education is universal, the laws are ably administered, the police is well-regulated, and pauperism is limited, and yet the returns tend to show, that there is more crime in proportion to the population in the most enlightened of these states, than in Pennsylvania, or the more western states. The false impression which these returns are calculated to convey, is in a great measure to be ascribed to the fact, that few crimes escape detection,

whereas, this is by no means the case in other parts of the Union."

As to the place of nativity of the convicts. It is very desirable to ascertain the increase of crime, the operation of the policy pursued by the state, and the changes which the morals of the people are undergoing; and to obtain data for such investigations, it is absolutely necessary to have the place of birth of every criminal in the United States, recorded. We have, it is true, partial statements from some of the more recently established penitentiaries, embracing this information, but these returns are only to be found from a few of the states, and so defective in arrangement, as to be of little value. In a moral point of view, it is interesting to observe the developement of national character, when removed from the control of its native institutions, and to learn the number of convicts from the Northern states, who are confined in the South; and the number of foreign born inhabitants who are to be found in the various prisons; and, in a political point of view, it is of importance to know the influence which foreigners exercise upon the crime of the country, and to have sure data for legislating on the subject. In the report made on the subject of American Penitentiaries, to the French Government, by Messrs. Beaumont and De Toqueville, a work in which we are constrained to say, vague estimates and hasty conclusions too frequently abound, though in many instances corrected and pointed out by the translator, Dr. Lieber, we find several statements as to the proportion of native to foreign crime in some of the states.

From 1800 to 1805, there were in the State prison of

	New York,	1	foreigner to	2,43	prisoners.
" 1825 to 1830,	"	1	"	4,77	"
" 1786 to 1796,	Philadelphia,	1	"	2,08	"
" 1829 to 1830,	"	1	"	5,79	"
" 1827 to 1831,	Connecticut,	1	"	13,27	"
" 1827 to 1831,	Maryland,	1	"	12,65	"
" 1829 to 1830,	Massachusetts,	1	"	6,	"

Such a table as this, at first sight, appears to present a very remarkable fact, viz., that the per-centage of foreigners convicted has decreased of late years, while the proportion of native criminals has very materially increased—but such is by no means a legitimate conclusion from the table above, as it must be evident, that the ratio of increase of the native over the foreign population enters as an element into every deduction from the table, as every year the number of foreigners forms a smaller proportion of the entire community; and unless the comparative increase of the native and foreign population were known, no accurate deduction could be made of the increase of crime, but if that is ascertained, and full tables procured of the place of birth of every criminal in confinement, at the time the census is taken, much valuable information would be the result. To show that such returns could easily be procured, we give one which we extract from the Trenton Prison Reports of the State of New Jersey, for a number of years past, although we do not think it advisable, that the tables to be procured by government should have any retrospective character, but be simply a statement of the places of nativity of the persons then in confinement.

State Prison, New-Jersey.

		1829	1830	1831	1832	1833	1834	1835	1836	1837
American,	Male,	47	....	67	74	....	60	57	53	64
	Female,	....	....	3	3	....	3	4	....	1
Negro,	Male,	32	....	31	32	....	35	32	36	45
	Female,	4	....	6	4	....	2	2	5	4
English,		3	....	3	5	....	4	8	10	13
Irish,		4	....	12	8	....	8	11	6	8
Scotch,		....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
German,		....	....	....	....	....	....	2	1	....
Indian,		....	....	....	....	....	....	1	1	....
Pole,		....	....	....	....	....	1	....	1	1
West Indian,		....	....	....	....	....	1	....	....	1
British Provincial,		....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2
Welsh,		....	....	....	2	....	....	....	....	....
French,		....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1
		90		123	128		114	117	113	141

The above table exhibits what amount of information can be obtained on this subject.

The age of different convicts would, as connected with their crimes, be an interesting subject belonging to the department of preventive police, and might furnish to the philanthropist many facts of great value. Mr. H. Bulwer remarks, "as is natural to suppose, the greatest number of crimes committed by both sexes are committed between 25 and 30 years of age, a time when the faculties are most developed, and the passions are strongest. Assassinations become more and more frequent after the age of twenty, up to the age of fifty, forgery takes the same rule of progression, but continues increasing up to the age of seventy and above"*—and the table framed by M. Guerry, of the crimes which predominate at different ages is extremely curious. But we are not aware of any practical results which will follow from such inquiries, although, if the information can easily be procured, it might be advisable to have it preserved. Messrs. Beaumont and De Toqueville

* France, Social, Literary, and Political—i. 142.

had sufficient data exhibited to them to form the following table, so if desirable, the same kind of data might be procured from all the states.

STATES.	Years to which returns refer.	Prisoners under 20.	Prisoners 20 to 30.	Prisoners 30 to 40.	Prisoners 40 to 50.	Prisoners 50 to 60.
Massachusetts, ..	1826—31,	1 of 12	1 of 2	1 of 4	1 of 9	1 of 24
New-York, ...	1826—32,	" " 11	" " 2	" " 4	" " 11	" " 24
Pennsylvania, ...	1830,	" " 10	" " 2	" " 4	" " 9	" " 24
Connecticut,.....	1827—32,	" " 8	" " 2	" " 7	" " 9	" " 29
Mean Term,..		1 of 10	1 of 2	1 of 5	1 of 9	1 of 25

And as further illustrating the information which may be procured, we copy from the able report of the Trenton Penitentiary, New-Jersey, the ages of the prisoners in confinement, on the 1st October, 1837.

PRISONERS.							Total.	White Males.	White Females.	Coloured Males.	Coloured Females.
Under 10.	Betw'n 10 & 20.	20 & 30	30 & 40	40 & 50	50 & 60	Upwa.d of 60					
1	22	64	35	9	9	1	141	91	1	45	4

These examinations might be useful in exhibiting the earlier developements of crime in the city than in the country population, and in detecting the motives which at different periods of human life, seem to have the predominance. It would not be difficult to frame a table which might be advantageously used in such an investigation, and we shall give the one employed by M. Guerry, when drawing out his interesting scale of the connection of crime with age.

Of the Crimes with which the prisoners in the various state prisons are charged, much might be learned, and a great deal of useful insight given into the structure of society among us. In the primitive ages of man's civilized condition, when ignorance

and prejudice hoodwinked the mass of the community, before enlightened views were taken either of trade or national relations, the sense of morality which regulated mankind was of so low a standard, as to reduce the number of criminal actions. As society advances in civilization, and becomes more accustomed to the rights of property, and to the increase of merchantable commodities, the opportunities and inducements to crime increase, as the standard by which actions are tested becomes more elevated. And this increase in the nature and opportunities of crime appears to keep pace with the progress of civilization, and the only check it seems likely to receive, is from the preventive influence of punishment. So also even in the present day, a rural population, though equally unprincipled with the population of a neighbouring city, is deterred from committing some crimes by the certainty of conviction, and incapacitated from committing others by the absence of all means of doing so. And this is not the only difference in the criminal code of nations, for another modification arises from the standard of morals as well as from the progress of civilization and refinement. Thus in France, where refinement may be said to have reached a greater height than in this country, the law takes no cognizance of many actions which are here considered criminal, as adultery, blasphemy, incest, and many other crimes of a like character, which shows that the tone of morality may be higher where the number of crimes are greater, than where, from reduced standards, no notice is taken of them. On the other hand, crimes, and the opportunities of committing them, increase with the state of educa-

tion, and intelligence, as in this country, the crime of forgery predominates, which Messrs. Beaumont and De Toqueville justly remark, "is easily explained by the state of knowledge in the United States, the immense number of banks, and the great commercial activity in that country."

In these investigations, therefore, it is very necessary to have the several causes of variation accurately defined, in order that we may be able to detect the bearing of the statements upon the questions before us. Arising, as crimes therefore do, from the peculiar constitution of society, from its pursuits and general condition and habits, it is useful to be able to discover, in what vein the criminal blood of the Northern man circulates, what actions and crimes it prompts him to, and at the same time to have exhibited the influence of the warmer passions, and more excitable feelings of those of the South. In procuring such information, no real difficulty need be encountered, as we are able to obtain returns from most of the states of the amount of crime in 1832, from the Parliamentary report of Mr. Crawfurd, already referred to, which shows they can easily be procured in reference to the year in which the census is taken. But it comes to be a question, into how many subdivisions the number of crimes committed ought to be divided; and whether it is advisable to draw out a table in the manner of Mr. Crawfurd, adapted to the condition of criminal jurisprudence in each state, or whether the common though vague distribution of crimes into those against persons, those against property, and those against morals is not sufficiently minute. We have in the French report, some state-

ments given, from which the following table is framed, and it may be questioned whether the subdivisions ought to be more numerous.

Table of Prisoners classed according to their Offences.

STATES.	Years to which returns refer	CONVICTED FOR CRIMES AGAINST			
		PROPERTY.	PERSONS.	MORALS.	FORGERY.
Connecticut, ..	1789..1800,	95.40 per ct.	4.60 per ct.	3.44 per ct.	10 34 per ct.
"	1819..30,	83.10 "	16.90 "	11.34 "	13.65 "
Pennsylvania,..	1789..1800,	94.35 "	5.65 "	2.74 "	4.97 "
"	1819..30,	94.61 "	5 34 "	1.72 "	4 84 "
New-York, ...	1800..10,	96,45 "	3 54 "	0 87 "	8 88 "
"	1820..30,	90.12 "	9.37 "	5 06 "	16.76 "

In Europe, it is generally conceded, that the more society advances in civilization, the more the relative number of crimes against persons decreases, as is very forcibly shown in some diagrams of M. Guerry, founded upon the actual returns from France. In estimating the influence of instruction, M. Guerry takes as the test of education, the list of those returned to the minister of war, at the period of conscription, as able to read and write; apportioning France into five divisions, he tints one map according to the state of instruction in each section, and compares it with another, depicting, by the same device, the state of crime. From this comparison, we see, that while crimes *against persons* are the most frequent in Corsica, the provinces of the South-east, and the Alsace, where the people are well instructed; those crimes are fewest in Berry, Limousin, and Brittany, where the people are most ignorant; and on the other hand, it is invariably those departments, in which education is most prevalent, that are the most criminal. Such being the case in France, and a common opinion of statists in Europe, it is re-

markable, that we do not see the same consequences exhibited in the above table, where in Pennsylvania, the proportion of crimes against the person has hardly varied within the last thirty years, and in the states of Connecticut and New-York, crimes against the person have actually increased. We have observed, that this fact is a remarkable one, but perhaps it is premature to consider it as ascertained, and certainly incautious, to examine it without considering the various circumstances which tend to modify it. But the question is one of great interest, and the amount of information required for the year of the census might easily be obtained, though to make it of its fullest value, we will have to wait for a similar census of 1850, when the comparison of the data thus accurately procured, will enable us, with more confidence, to decide the questions of the increase of crime, and the effect of civilization, and free institutions upon the moral habits of the people.

As to the propriety of making the investigation in detail, we think much must depend upon the zeal with which the census is undertaken by government, and the expense which a full enumeration of the prisoners would amount to, which we are inclined to believe would be inconsiderable, and nothing save the expense ought to prevent such from being done. We subjoin a table founded on the penal code of Pennsylvania, which exhibits the subject of this and the last head, viz. the age and crime of the convict.

Table to show the form in which returns might be made both of the ages of the Prisoners, and of the crimes for which they are confined.

OFFENCES.	Under 10.	Between 10 and 15	15 and 20.	20 and 30.	30 and 40.	40 and 50	50 and 60.	60, &c.	Total.	Deaths in a year	No of years of imprisonment.	Amount of fine.	No. executed within a year.	Could read & write on committal.	Could read only.	Could neither read nor write.
Adultery																
Arson																
Bastardy																
Bigamy																
Blasphemy																
Bribery at Election																
Burglary																
Compoun'g Felony																
Duelling																
Forgery																
Fornication																
Gaming																
Horse stealing																
Incest																
Kidnapping																
Larceny																
Maiming																
Malicious mischief																
Manslaughter																
Murder																
Perjury																
Robbery																
Treason																

Sentence.—It would be interesting to have the amount of sentence awarded in the different states, for various crimes, accurately ascertained; for the moral tone pervading a community may be more thoroughly tested by the abhorrence with which a crime is punished, than by the frequency of conviction for it. In this there would be no difficulty, for the peculiar aggravations of the punishment might be omitted, and no notice taken of the diet or seclusion to which the convict is restricted, as since the introduction of penitentiaries in different parts of the country, little distinction is made in the treatment of criminals, the difference of punishment consisting mainly in the duration of the period of confinement. A curious practice prevails in this country of obliging

the convict to pay the expenses of his own conviction, and, as it were, liquidate the expense to which he has put the government; and though this seems a very just principle where the labour of the convict exceeds the value of his maintenance, it is a principle which neither the policy nor arrangements of England or France recognize. In the state of New Jersey, the prisoner has a certain allotted task to perform, and he is allowed, after his work is over, to continue his labour for the purpose of accumulating a sum to pay for the expenses of conviction; and if he does not do so, his term of imprisonment is prolonged until the value of his labour equals the amount required. The French commissioners complain loudly of this practice, and of the state's appropriating all the earnings of the criminals; and they think that the *pécule*, or over-stint, ought certainly to be allowed as an encouragement to labour, and that the system of withholding it is "excessively severe." But these aggravations of the sentence it would perhaps be better not to notice, and simply to record, in columns opposite to the crime, the sum total of years for which persons convicted of that crime were sentenced; as, for example, the crime of forgery, for which four persons are under sentence, the duration of their imprisonment might be stated as 14 years, and the aggregate amount of fine imposed in addition to the sentence, if any, might be noted in a table appended to the summary of crimes and ages.

If the census is to be made out so as to take account of the health and longevity of the population, it would be well to have a return made of the number of deaths in a prison or penitentiary within a

year, as it would then be easy to test not only the effect of confinement, but the comparative effect of the different systems, the Auburn and Pennsylvania. As such information could easily be obtained from the keeper of the prison, there would seem to be no necessity of dwelling longer upon it; and it may only be necessary to state the different results that appear in different states and countries to flow from the systems of punishment pursued, to show the interest which would be attached to such returns from the prisons and penitentiaries of this country. The number of deaths in the various prisons has been, on an average, for three years, according to the following table:

Table of proportion of Deaths in various Penitentiaries.

At Walnut-street, Philadelphia,	1	died in	16.66
At Newgate, New-York,	1	"	" 18.80
At Sing-Sing,	1	"	" 36 58
At Wethersfield,	1	"	" 44.40
At Maryland Penitentiary,	1	"	" 48.57
At Auburn,	1	"	" 55.96
At Charlestown,	1	"	" 58.40
At the Central Houses in France,	1	"	" 14.00

The increasing health of particular penitentiaries is a pleasing fact for the philanthropist, and the moral training of the prisoners seems best to accord with the system of discipline which affords the greatest amount of health. The ease with which this return can be made out seems of itself to be a sufficient reason for procuring it, especially as the information is greatly sought after by the Howards of our day.

Table of the Prisoners in Bridewell in the City of Glasgow on 25th March, 1831, *classified according to their Country and Education.**

	Scotch.			English.			Irish.					
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Can read and write,.....	43	44	87	3	3	6	17	2	15	59	49	108
Can read only, ...	34	100	134	2	8	10	7	18	25	44	126	170
Can neither read nor write,	7	9	16	1	1	2	8	6	14	16	16	32
	4	153	237	6	12	18	28	26	54	119	191	310

* Cleland's Statistics, p. 123.

Previous education of convicts.—"The question," says Dr. Lieber, in some very pertinent remarks on this subject—"the question, 'Does diffusion of knowledge increase or diminish crime, or has it no influence at all upon it?' is of vital interest to society; and thorough inquiries ought to be made upon all sides, searching unflinchingly for truth. It would be well if those who propose to investigate this important subject would make a marked difference between knowledge and education. A certain kind of knowledge and the skill of a nation may greatly increase, and yet education may stand very low; and thus partial civilization may very much advance, and yet education be comparatively neglected, which is in our opinion the worst of all conditions. We repeat it once more, go to the prisons, and inquire into the history of each convict, and then see whether knowledge or its want is the chief cause of crime. We would suggest that in future reports of our state prisons one or two divisions should be added, in which the education a convict has enjoyed should be indicated in a few words." With these suggestions we most cordially agree, and maintain that until this be done, it is useless to speculate on the meager facts which are so often presented to us.

This subject is one of vast importance as connected with national education, as an opinion is abroad that education is by no means the excellent thing which some maintain it to be, but that the lower classes will be more virtuous and contented without it; and this assumption is seemingly sustained by some French statistics, and even the French commissioners on the penitentiary system seem to be carried away by some such opinion, when they say: "We do not believe that to the diffusion of knowledge this decrease of crime is to be attributed; because in Connecticut, where knowledge is still more diffused than in the state of New York, crimes increase with extreme rapidity; and if we cannot reproach knowledge with this prodigious increase, we are at least constrained to acknowledge that it has not the power of preventing it." If such opinions are broached by men of high influence, the time for the friends of universal education to exert themselves most strenuously has certainly come, and they need not fear the result. It is true, that the sources of pleasure and improvement are also the sources of crime and vice; that the wants of educated communities are more varied than the necessaries which may suffice for a more rustic people; and that in proportion as wants are augmented, crime is increased—this, and all such general conclusions, may be true, or they may be false; but they are not the grounds on which the advocate of improvement and education wishes to meet the question. He looks at the criminal as a man like himself, and views him as having fallen, though not irretrievably, from the standard of virtue: he desires not to promote a Utopian information, but to renew and quicken

the moral sympathies of the convict. Such are the motives which prompt the philanthropist; and as they are awakened in the breast of every feeling man on coming in contact with crime, so they are constantly striving to prevent innocence from becoming corrupted by intercourse with guilt. The only way of enabling the mind of the youth to repel the attacks of vice, is by elevating the moral conceptions, the rudiments of which are implanted within, and, by quickening all his faculties, to excite him to the performance of his moral duties. Such, we take it, is the end proposed in a general scheme of education, and its advantages are, the moral discipline to which the business of the school subjects the infant mind, and the facilities thereby attained of procuring information in after life. If it were true that education increased the criminal appetites and passions in a greater ratio than it awakened the moral and mental powers of man's constitution, there might be cause for apprehending the evil consequences which would arise from a general diffusion of knowledge; but such an argument would reach the wealthier and more influential class of society, as well as the poorer and more obscure; and were its truth established, the midnight lamp of the student, and the sound of the school-bell, ought alike to be extinguished and silenced, in the hope of producing that general ignorance which had been found so favourable to moral and individual prosperity.

But we must call the attention of our readers to an established fact, which throws much light upon this subject, namely, that the greater the degree of intelligence and education prevailing in a community, the

greater will be the efficiency of its police, and the certainty of convicting the criminal. We refer not to the systems of police which prevail under some European governments, which operate as spies upon the mass of the community, and thereby create a feeling rather in favour of the criminal, and against the officers of justice, as the interests of the government and of the people often by no means agree. But we refer to a system which is based upon the good-will and cordial feelings of the public, where the wish to protect the criminal disappears before the desire to uphold the laws; and in reference to such a system, we say, that the more the people are enlightened, the greater will be the certainty of conviction. Let us take, for example, the state of Connecticut, where every one can read, where all enjoy the advantages of a well-organized society, and where the minute subdivisions of the state further the investigations into every sort of crime which may be committed, be it intemperance, petty larceny, or misdemeanours; and take the condition of a corresponding number of inhabitants in some of the largest class of cities, and should it be found that more commitments took place in Connecticut than in those districts of large commercial cities where the whole population subsist by the earnings of vice and debauchery, it will be evident that such a result would only establish the superiority of the standard of morals, not the greater amount of crime. And the same applies to examples where the difference of situation is not so great, as, for instance, the states of Connecticut and Pennsylvania: in the former, where all the population are intelligent, and where the code of police

regulations was in part framed by the Puritan settlers; and in the latter, where a large proportion cannot read, and where the habits of the people, although rapidly improving, are more gross and uncultivated. The number of convictions alone, is, therefore, no criterion by which to estimate the state of crime; and the conclusions which have been drawn from them are utterly valueless, though they would have been of immense value, had it been possible to obtain returns of the number of crimes committed as compared with the number of the educated part of the population.

But of course such a table never can be procured, so many crimes never seeing the light of day, and so many being committed which are not complained of; and therefore we must turn our attention to the amount of actual information which can be procured on this subject. We can obtain a list of the number of criminals in confinement who can read and write, and we can have a corresponding table made out of those in the community at large who have the same acquirements; and by the comparison of the two we may arrive at some more satisfactory opinion. The division into those who can read, those who can read and write, and those who can do neither, although not very satisfactory, is perhaps as detailed as the agents engaged in making out the returns would be able to execute—showing, beyond the power of contradiction, the connexion, if there be any, between the possession of the elements of education and the commission of crime. As in some of the penitentiaries the prisoners are instructed in reading and writing, the returns should be made only in reference to their

acquirements at the time of commitment. That such statements can be procured we are easily convinced by reference to the prison reports of the different states, as, for instance, in the Report of the New Jersey Penitentiary for 1836, the following return occurs: "Of those now in confinement, as near as we can ascertain, 17 have had good education, 89 can barely read and write, and the remaining 35 can neither read nor write." With such a table, accurately made out, the whole information which can be procured by any government would be ascertained; and we firmly believe the blessings of education and moral training would triumphantly appear greatly to outnumber the disadvantages connected with them.

County Prisons.—In reference to the State Prisons andPenitentiaries, we have had much pleasure in perusing the reports of the different officers who are entrusted with their care, and in extracting notices of various useful topics about which information is desired; but in regard to the County Jails, our remarks must be of altogether another character. In the former, we have perceived the enlightened principles of Christianity in operation, which, by infusing their bland influence into the precincts of the prison courtyard, have elevated the tone both of the moral treatment and physical regulations of the prisoners, and changed the character of those who administer the discipline; and, in the language of the Report of the French Commissioners, we may say, "that men like Mr. Samuel Wood (the Superintendent of the Eastern Penitentiary, Philadelphia,) would not be found at the head of American Penitentiaries, were they not

influenced by a nobler sentiment than that of pecuniary interest." The ends of justice are now attained, united with the influences of Christianity, and the prayer of the captive is often seconded by the private petition of his jailor. This makes the subject interesting and elevating, and we look in vain for anything to excite a feeling of commiseration for the treatment of the prisoner, or of disgust at the horrors of the prison house, for in no institutions in the country, do we find harmony and contentment more prevalent. But far other are our feelings, and far different the pleasure with which we write, when we turn our attention to the county and city prisons; and bright though the laurel may be, which crowns the penitentiary system, it withers and fades if brought near the cells of a court house prison. The laudable efforts of the Boston Prison Discipline Society, have produced good effects, and the active exertions of Philanthropists, in some of our cities, have removed the abuses in certain districts; but from the length and breadth of our land, a cry of distress and suffering may be heard from those whom some petty offences have consigned to the horrors of a county prison, and if it does not excite sympathy, it is only because the labour of the prisoner, who is committed for so short a time, holds out no hope of remunerating the community for any expense they might incur. The manager of a Penitentiary who, by laudable exertion and active attention, can defray all the expense of his establishment by the labour of the convicts, as was the case last year at Lambertville, New-Jersey, has an easy task, and an approving public, compared to the county jailor whose expenses increase with attention

to the necessary wants and justly expected comforts of the prisoners, and who has no right to anticipate that any large amount of work can be done by prisoners situated as his always are. If the Penitentiaries are the boast of this country, the county jails are its disgrace; and if the one are an example worthy the imitation of foreign countries, the foreign jails should be taken as a criterion of what the others might be.

Of the number of prisoners in the various county jails, their treatment and management, the community at large are in utter ignorance, and perhaps nothing will convey a more correct estimate of the magnitude of this interesting subject, than the statement made in the Boston Prison Discipline Reports, that by the operation of one law alone, imprisonment for debt, ten thousand persons are annually committed to jail. The question is not, therefore, one which affects only a few criminals, but, taking the country at large, perhaps one hundred thousand persons were incarcerated for debt, for crimes—for even alleged crimes, in places which the pen almost shrinks from describing. In reference to the State of New-Jersey: "On this subject, we know nothing worse in the whole length and breadth of the land, than in New-Jersey. The number committed to prison for debt, according to their population, their filthy and neglected condition while incarcerated, the small sum for which it is done, the expense to some of the counties of this most fruitless mode of collecting debts, the leaving of debtors in prison without any provision in law for their support. The laws of New-Jersey, says a humane Sheriff of one of the counties, provide

food, bedding, and fuel for criminals, but for debtors nothing is provided but walls, bars, and bolts. A member of the legislature of New-Jersey described the condition of a jail in that State, where he attempted to go among the criminals and debtors in one mass of common corruption, but the air was in such a state that he could not do it."* "We have," say the French Commissioners, "deeply sighed when at Cincinnati, visiting the prison, we found half of the imprisoned charged with irons, and the rest plunged into an infected dungeon; and are unable to describe the painful impression which we experienced when examining the prison in New-Orleans, we found men together with hogs in the midst of all odours and nuisances. In locking up the criminals, no one thinks of rendering them better, but only of taming their malice. They are put in chains like ferocious beasts, and, instead of being corrected, they are rendered brutal."—Beaumont & De Toqueville, p. 113. It is not a pleasant task, after having traced the improvement perceptible in the state penitentiaries, to detail the misery that prevails in these sad specimens of what confinement used formerly always to be; and we would not now do so, did we not desire to excite the attention of the general government to the number of prisoners who suffer annually from the shameful treatment here detailed.

Such is the accommodation provided for the criminals, and we have been assured by those in confinement in a State Prison, that the horrors of a county jail were tenfold greater than the solitude and discip-

* Prison Discipline Reports, No. vi. 1831.

line of a well conducted Penitentiary. And who are exposed to this treatment? Were it only the hardened criminal who had been long inured to crime and to punishment, whose hand, for years, had been against every man's hand, who was debased and abandoned beyond reclaim; we doubt much the right which society has to use such brutal treatment to avenge itself of the injuries inflicted upon it, for by such treatment, amendment never can be expected. Were such only committed to the county jail, humanity should raise her cry, and the voice of an enlightened public should exclaim, let mercy season justice. But far other are the inmates of the various jails throughout the country. We have there, the debtor, whom misfortune, or it may be at worst imprudence, has perchance reduced from a higher and more elevated station in society. "There, too, is the boy, whom a little indiscreet wildness, often the element, if well directed, of future greatness, has reduced from his much prized liberty: now a ready scholar of the accomplished thief, where he finds fit associates that make his second entrance to the house of detention, only a passage to the Penitentiary, or, in our present system, to the gallows."

But when we add to this, that the accused are imprisoned night and day, with the most hardened criminals; that innocence is associated with vice; and that corruption is encouraged in the progress of justice; enough were said to make it abundantly evident that this is an inquiry which ought to be carried on by the Government, in order to determine how many of its citizens are debarred from personal liberty, and placed in barbarous imprisonment upon the

mere suspicion of crime. The following statement is extracted from Mr. Livingston's introduction to the code of Louisiana; in which the distressed convict, and accused prisoner, find an eloquent appeal to the best feelings of humanity; with what effect it has been received, however, the destitute condition of the jails, too plainly evinces. This table exhibits the number of accused, acquitted, and sentenced in New York city for several consecutive years, furnished to Mr. Livingston by ex-recorder Riker.

	1822.	1823.	1824.	1825.	1826.
Committed for Trial,	2361	1928	1961	2168	2273
Tried,		5 9	586	547	662
Convicted,	361	422	417	386	462
Acquitted,	2090	177	169	161	2 0
Total, discharged and acquitted,		1506	1544	1782	1811

When such is the number of persons who are proved to be innocent upon trial, it is lamentable to think that in the county jails, a suspected person, perhaps some friendless, yet innocent stranger, may, without crime or guilt of any kind, but merely upon an unjust suspicion, be kept imprisoned for a term of three months, in some places six months, in company with those from whom his soul recoils; where the necessaries of life are barely supplied, the comforts quite overlooked; and where the moral contamination around him can hardly fail to weaken his principles, as it must outrage his feelings. Such being the condition of county jails, and the number there imprisoned being so great, it well becomes Government to inquire into their condition, were it only to awaken the philanthropist, and stir up the zeal of the Christian community; for while

much has been done for the State Prison, and reports and messages congratulatory to the well directed efforts, are daily poured forth, not a voice is heard exciting the compassion of the multitude, for the condition of the county prisoner. Religious instruction is not proffered to him, but despair and dejection are almost the only alternatives of contamination and degradation.

But to return—for we have been seduced away from our more legitimate theme, in the hope of attracting some attention to the sufferings of the prisoners in the county jails; and the injustice of confining the accused with the condemned. We would now refer to the information which may be procured at the different jails throughout the country.

The following divisions might serve to elucidate all the information which is desirable in regard to county prisoners, viz:

I. A distribution into three classes:

1. Debtors, or those who are confined to insure their attendance as witnesses, &c.

2. Suspected persons, committed to jail on a warrant.

3. Convicted criminals, whether sentenced to the State Prison, or the County Jail, thereby including all convicted persons at the time of the examination.

II. Tables of all convicted prisoners in the County Jails are ranged according to their

1. Ages,
2. Places of nativity,
3. Crimes,
4. Sentence,
5. Education,

being the same queries as were proposed in reference to the State Prisons, with the exception of the returns of the health of the prisoners, which from various circumstances it would be inexpedient to follow out. That all the information here required, might easily be obtained, there cannot be a doubt, and as showing more conclusively the progress of morality in the country at large, than the State Prison returns alone, we would fain hope that the subject may be pursued, and in investigating it, the condition of the prisoners would be brought more before the public, and the injustice of promiscuous confinement be made more fully manifest; and then some hope might be cherished, that the fearful scenes to which we have referred, would cease to exist.

State of the Laws. There yet remains one subject connected with crime and its punishment, to which we have to refer, and that is, the propriety of having accurate information afforded of the actual condition of the penal code in the various States. In so many constantly changing laws as obtain in the 26 states, it is quite impossible, to make an accurate estimate of crime without knowing the condition of the codes of the various states, and the constant alterations which they undergo, make it difficult for the statist, to keep pace with the changes. We are well aware that in New-York and several of the other northern States, the system of imprisonment for debt has been abolished, although we have spoken of it above as if it still existed, but though it no longer disgraces the statute book of that State, it is to be found in others; and there is no digest of information on such subjects of which the general student

can avail himself. But if such is the case with so prominent a question as imprisonment for debt, to how much greater an extent does it prevail when the various crimes on the calendar are investigated, and where can the desired information, so essential to an examination into the condition of criminal jurisprudence be found? Now it is generally thought that there is great uniformity in the laws of the several states, regarding the punishment of crime; and in Europe, we constantly see reference made to the practice of the United States, as if that were a universal standard, but to show how much the different states vary, we turn to the authority so often already quoted, in which we find the following extracts. "Let us compare," say the French Commissioners, "the laws of Pennsylvania with those of New-England, which is perhaps the most enlightened part of the American Union. In Massachusetts, there are 10 different crimes punished by death; Maine, Rhode-Island, and Connecticut, count the same number of capital crimes. Among these laws, some contain the most degrading punishments, such as pillory, others revolting cruelties, such as branding and mutilation. Close by a state where the penal law seems to have arrived at its summit, we find another, the criminal laws of which are stamped with all the brutalities of the ancient system. It is thus that the State of Delaware, so far behind in the path of improvement, borders on Pennsylvania, which in this respect, marches at the head of all others." We will hereafter give the revised code of Pennsylvania, and now mention some of the laws of Delaware, (in 1833.) Forgery is punished thus—

"The convict is sentenced to a fine, pillory, and three months solitary confinement; at the expiration of this punishment, he wears on his back, for not less than two, and not more than five years, the letter F. (forgery) in scarlet colour on his dress. This letter must be six inches long and two inches wide. And

Poisoning is thus punished: The convict may be sentenced to a fine of $10,000, one hours exhibition at the pillory, and to be publicly whipped, he must receive 60 lashes "well laid on," he then goes for four years into prison, after which he is sold as a slave for a time not exceeding 14 years."

And in Massachusetts, until 1829, it was the custom to mark on the arm of re-convicted criminals, on the expiration of their sentence, the words, Massachusetts State Prison.

The contrast which such laws as these, present to the mild codes of Pennsylvania, New-Jersey, and New-York, make it absolutely necessary for the statist to have some accurate data upon which to found his inquiries, and it would be extremely interesting to observe the progress or the decline of a particular crime, in connection with the severity or leniency of the law regarding it. It is well known that the penal code has often been so sanguinary, that no jury could be found in many cases to bring in a verdict of guilty; and it is to examine the general working of a system which occasionally produces such results, that the statist desires accurate returns of the existing condition of the laws in each state. And such returns can be made at very little expense or trouble, by the marshals of each district, or perhaps more correctly by the U. S. District Attorney. Were this

officer required to make out returns of the severity of the penal code in the state for which he officiated, in the same way as Mr. Crawfurd in his able report to the British Parliament has done; the knowledge which would be possessed of the condition of the penal code would be complete, and that taken in connection with the various returns we have already mentioned as to numbers, crimes, and sentences, would be as satisfactory as possible, and we believe might easily be obtained. We append Mr. Crawfurd's report of the code of Pennsylvania, to show how these returns might be made out, and in concluding this chapter, we must remark that no topic of examination is more useful in promoting the moral well-being of the community, and no information is more desired by the Philanthropist.

OFFENCES.	PUNISHMENTS.
Adultery,	Fine not exceeding 250 dollars, and imprisonment from 3 to 12 months.
Arson, Burning any house, out-house, &c.; church, barn, hay-stack, &c.; maliciously, or being accessory before the fact, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour from 1 to 10 years.
Offence II.	The same, not exceeding 15 years.
Bastardy, Concealing the death of a Bastard child, Offence I.	Imprisonment in County jail, or solitary confinement at labour, not exceeding 5 years, or fine and imprisonment.
Offence II.	Imprisonment for life.
Bigamy, Including second husband or wife, if aware of the fact,	Fine and imprisonment at hard labour, not exceeding 2 years.
Blasphemy,	Fine of $50, or 3 months' hard labour.
Bribery at Election,	Fine not exceeding $250, and imprisonment not exceeding 6 months.
Burglary, Breaking into a dwelling-house by night, to commit a felony, or accessary, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour from 2 to 10 years.
Offence II.	The same, not exceeding 15 years.
Breaking State-house, or other public building with like intent,	Fine and solitary confinement, not exceeding 7 years.
Compounding Felony, where goods have been stolen,	A fine twice the sum agreed on.
Duelling, Fighting a duel; sending, or accepting a challenge; posting for not fighting, or printing bills for posting, or refusing to give authors.	Fine of $500, imprisonment 1 year at hard labour, and deprived of the rights of citizenship for seven years.
Bearing challenge, or consenting to be second.	Fine of $500, imprisonment for 1 year at hard labour, and disqualified for holding office.
Having knowledge of a duel, or being present at one.	Fine $50, and imprisonment for 9 months.
Forgery, In general, including coining, altering, or defacing deeds: uttering or having forged notes, &c. in possession; making or passing paper for notes, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour from 1 to 7 years.
Offence II.	Imprisonment not exceeding 10 years.
Fornication,	Fine and imprisonment at hard labour, not exceeding 7 years.
Gaming, Keeping certain tables.	Fine, not exceeding $100 and imprisonment in the county jail not exceeding 1 year.
Fighting cocks, or betting on them.	Fine $40, or, in default, imprisonment, not exceeding 30 days.
Horse stealing, or accessory before the fact, Offence I.	Solitary confinement from 1 to 4 years.
Offence II.	Same, not exceeding 7 years.
Incest,	The same as Adultery or Fornication, as the case may be.
Kidnapping, Offence 1.	Solitary confinement at labour, from 5 to 12 years.
Offence II.	The same, for 21 years.

Larceny, Stealing to the value of $4 or upwards,	Restoration of the goods stolen, or their value, fine to the same amount, and hard labour, not exceeding 3 years.
Value under $4.	Restoration of the goods stolen, or their value, fine to the same amount, and imprisonment at hard labour, not exceeding 1 year.
Receiving Stolen Goods when principal is not convicted.	A misdemeanor, punishment the same as if principal were convicted.
Maiming, Aiding, abetting, or counselling thereto, Offence I.	Solitary confinement, at labour from 1 to 7 years.
Offence II.	The same, not exceeding 14 years.
Malicious Mischief, To knockers, sign-boards, &c.	Fine and imprisonment, not exceeding 7 years.
Manslaughter, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour from 2 to 6 years.
Offence II.	The same from 6 to 12 years.
Involuntary, committed in some unlawful act, not making it murder.	A misdemeanor.
Murder, First degree, by poison, lying in wait, or deliberate killing, or in an attempt at Arson, Rape, Robbery, or Burglary.	Death.
Second degree, or any other kind of Murder, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour, from 4 to 12 years.
Offence II.	Same, for life.
Perjury, Or subornation thereof, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour, from 1 to 5 years, and disqualified as a witness.
Offence II.	The same for life.
Robbery, Or Accessary before the fact, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour, from 2 to 7 years.
Offence II.	The same, not exceeding 10 years.
Sodomy, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour, 1 to 5 yrs.
Offence II.	Same, not exceeding 10 years.
Treason, High, Offence I.	Solitary confinement at labour, 3 to 6 yrs
Offence II.	Same, not exceeding 10 years.
Petit Treason,	As in other kinds of murder.

NOTE. It is not stated whether the term II. offence applies only to previous conviction in this State, or whether it is in evidence to produce proof of committal in any other State.

PAUPERISM.

"Pauperism, pauper, poor man, are expressions of pity, but pity alloyed with contempt,—no one properly contemns a beggar." This, though said with the quaintness and irony peculiar to Lamb, is essentially true, and reveals much of the hidden philosophy of charity. That the only links which bind the human family together, are not those of service and reward, of duty and obedience, the most casual observer will admit; but it is not easy to appreciate fully the secret sympathies which, like an arterial system, penetrate every grade of human society. There is no heart that cannot be touched by some motive of a purer influence, however debased its common sentiments may be, and there is no creature so degraded, from whom a fellow-being would not accept a silent token of affectionate gratitude. And it is from this cause, we believe, that the words of Lamb derive their truth. There is no act of charity which we can perform, for which we cannot receive some return, whether it be gratitude or commendation, and by preserving our respect for the recipient of the charity, we make his gratitude or his appreciation of our kindness, more worthy of acceptance. But this applies to private charities; in public almsgiving the case is different. In using the term pau-

perism, we refer to a compulsory aliment, which, while destroying all opportunity of producing kind sympathies between man and his fellow-men, bestows the means of subsistence to the indigent pauper, contemplating only his animal wants. Pauperism infers a legal assessment upon the property of the wealthy, and a legal right to maintenance on the part of the indigent portion of the community. There is nothing gratuitous—there is nothing voluntary, connected with public charity; but by legal provision, a certain part of each man's property is taken from him, and given to his pauper neighbour,—and is given grudgingly.

In every country, and under every government, poverty and wretchedness must exist. It is not for man to scan the decrees of the Almighty, or to repine at the hardships which many of his race may seem unavailingly to endure; but, worshipping the beneficence of his Creator, he must acquiesce in the justice of His dispensations. That "the poor ye have always with you," experience has too painfully proved; and it becomes alike the duty of the Statesman, Philanthropist, and Christian, to alleviate their sufferings and mitigate their privations. As society advances in civilization, the density of population has always increased, and with it, the poverty and wretchedness of a portion of the community. Human society has never been freed from this stain, and, like a leprous spot, it has at times threatened to corrupt its whole structure. The subject, therefore, becomes one of paramount interest to the United States, which are rapidly increasing in population and wealth; but in which it may be hoped that wise legislation and pre-

cautionary measures may long keep pauperism and poverty in subjection and restraint.

Poverty may arise either from unforeseen and unavoidable calamities, or from improvident and dissipated habits, and it were unjust to the sufferers to consider them as classed together. It must always happen that a large portion of the community depend for subsistence upon the daily returns of their labour, and if sickness or accident befall them, they are reduced to rely on public or private charity for support, and in the event of death may leave a family in a destitute condition.

On the other hand, vice, dissipation, and idleness, have always thrown a large number of paupers upon society, and it has become a question with the community, whether they are entitled to assistance, or whether they ought not to be left to the unalleviated misery of the condition to which they have reduced themselves.

It is not our purpose, in these pages, to enter at length into the abstract principles of writers upon the poor laws; nor to coincide with, nor to attempt to refute their theories; but after examining the subject of charity generally, we will enumerate those circumstances which give one part of the community a right to expect the aid of the other; then refer to the general condition of the poor laws in this country; and conclude by some observations on the subject of foreign paupers and pauper immigration.

That a dependant condition is not necessarily one of degradation, when we reflect on the infancy, sickness and old age of our race, is sufficiently obvious. Cradled in dependence, we are liable to relapse in

our most vigorous manhood into a similar state; and if this calamity is averted, we must look forward at least to an impotent old age. Selfish in his nature, man requires these strong incentives to the cultivation of his kindlier feelings to prevent interest and self-gratification absorbing his affections. Thus from the weakness incident to our physical structure, spring the strongest ties which unite man to his fellow; and from the stoic of the woods, he becomes the sympathizing and compassionate friend of sorrow.

If we regard man in his animal wants, it were easy to see the workings of this sympathy—this infection of the sympathetic chords of our nature. Pain excites pain—pleasure calls forth pleasure, unless circumstances of excitement or enthusiasm may temporarily chill the affections of the human breast; and to this natural impulse we must attribute the action of our sensitive and commiserating feelings. Local prejudices and habits may overcome this natural sympathy, and the Athenian mother might, without a pang, expose her sickly child, or the callous Inquisitor might, unmoved, contemplate the sufferings he inflicted, and the artificial composition of modern society may exclude, in its selfish policy, the sufferings of its inferior classes from the sympathy of the higher. These are, however, only exceptions to the laws of humanity which have emplanted a natural sympathy between man and the rest of creation. But it is when we look at man as a moral, intellectual and immortal being, that the law of sympathy becomes merged in one of comprehensive charity. We know that the feelings which excite our bosom animate

his; that the same fears and same joys, the same apprehensions and the same hopes, are his, and that however urgent the wants, or acute the sufferings, of his physical nature may be, that his intellectual and moral condition also requires a solace peculiar to itself. "The truth is, that man is not like the beast that perish,—a mere animal, to propagate upon food like the flocks and herds. It is only when sunk by the vicious institutions of society to the situation of a mere animal, that he puts on the conditions of a brutal nature. In proportion as his intellectual and moral nature, his only true nature, is cultivated and called out, he becomes, we will not say something different from an animal, but certainly something besides an animal. He awakens to an existence which corn does not feed, and which famine does not starve. A moral and spiritual life grows up within him, with its own principles of growth, of nourishment, and decline. In proportion to this growth of another life to the delicacy, elevation, and purity of the new existence, which the Son of Heaven has put on, will be the influence of the remaining mere animal nature, and the degree to which it will govern and determine his progress."* In this eloquent vindication of the dignity of man, we learn to discover the higher ends of charity, which, by cultivating the finer affections, calls out the inherent principles of man's divine nature.

But when the cold and calculating creed of Malthus, measuring with an iron rule the limits of our race, and venturing to starve it into subjection is considered, how inconceivably more enlightened and

* North American Review, vol. viii., 305 p.

humane are the principles inculcated by Christianity. The political inquirer there learns that man has other than a political race to run; he may form part of a community, and in his turn add to its wealth, or hang listlessly upon its charities, but at the same time he is undergoing a severer ordeal than any to which this life as relates to his animal wants, can expose him; he is gradually elevating his mind to an enjoyment of the glories of revelation, or debasing his spiritual nature into a state of callous indifference to, or positive alienation from, its eternal happiness. Admiring as we do a great part of Mr. Malthus' essay, and agreeing with the propriety of opposing restraints rather than promoting the increase of the population of European countries, we can realize the heartless nature of his philosophy, only when applied to the actual misery around us. There we are constrained to admit the hand of a superintending Providence, against whose dealings with our race it were vain for human restrictions to strive, and we believe that poverty and wretchedness are the necessary results of the unalterable condition of man, and arise from the physical laws of our planet, when united with the sentence "in the sweat of thy brow shalt thou eat bread till thou return to the ground."

With such general views, let us consider the effect of private and of public charity upon the recipient as they differ in their character, and in the effect they exercise upon both the donor and receiver. In the former it is always considered in the light of a gratuity, and as a token of sympathy. Private charity, as far as it can be extended, is the best mode of relieving the poor, as it cultivates, while it gratifies, the

benevolence of the giver, and induces gratitude on the part of the recipient. The claim which a sufferer has upon the sympathy of another, which the poor man has on the liberality of the rich, and the sick man upon the assistance of his neighbour in health, is of an elevated and beautiful character. It cannot be determined and regulated by any known standard, but is a Christian law of universal application, which embraces in its wide extent the whole human race.

Public charity, on the other hand, arises from different motives, excites different feelings on the part both of the distributors of it, and of those who receive it, and can never be prompted by the same elevated feelings. It is from a desire to be spared the painfulness of the exposure of the misery of others, that the public consent to be taxed for their support, and wherever a general system of provision for the poor exists, it must carefully be guarded from abuse. Whenever a maintenance at public expense is viewed as a right, it becomes necessary to limit that right by certain restrictions, and as in this country, following the English law, vagrancy is generally considered a crime, it becomes proper to consider the circumstances which give the pauper a right to demand an aliment from the public.

Before briefly enumerating the circumstances which give a right to relief, it were well to remark on the peculiar condition of this country, where wages are high, labour in demand, and provisions and the necessaries of life are cheap. There is therefore, no excuse for any able bodied man demanding aid, whatever may be the nature of his occupation, or the existing condition of trade. If provident during the

times of general activity, he may save a sufficiency against the time of depression, and always find some kind of employment in which he can provide for his own support. Unfortunately, however, from a mistaken policy, the laws of many States have been too similar to those prevailing in England, and support is too often given to the indigent and needy, instead of being reserved for the disabled and infirm. And let us beware of planting in the soil a weed which may in time check the growth of more healthful vegetation, and let not a mistaken charity foster the seeds of a system which may in time taint every thing in its neighbourhood. The burden at present, falls lightly upon the American citizen, but it is much to be feared that ere long, it will make a sensible impression, and unless a new system of arrangement be introduced, the gigantic and oppressive system of the English poor laws, may imperceptibly obtain a footing in many of the states.

The Revised Statutes of the State of New-York, provide that "every poor person, who is blind, lame, old, sick, impotent, or decrepit, or in any other way disabled, or enfeebled, so as to be unable by his work to maintain himself, shall be maintained by the county or town in which he may be" which would seem to embrace all those who deserve public support, without including any who should be denied it. In assisting the blind, lame and mutes, such allowance only ought to be granted them, as will place their labour on the same footing with that of any ordinary tradesman; and an allowance which does not require additional exertion, should never be awarded, when the object of the charity can procure

anything by his own labour. The insane poor, of course require a complete maintenance, and the number of these in the United States is considerable. Below, we append a condensed account of the number of insane in the State of New-York, extracted from a report made to the legislature in 1838, and taking the estimate of the proportion of idiots and lunatics in that state as a criterion, we may conclude that there are upwards of 16,000 insane in the United States.* The assistance which the sick and aged are to procure from the public should be administered

* The whole number of lunatics in this State, in 1835, was 967, and the whole number of idiots, 1,484. Both those classes in the Statistics of Insanity, come under the general head of insane persons. A comparison of the number of these two classes with the whole population of the State, in the two years of the State census, 1825 and 1835, gives the following result:

	1825.	1835.
Proportion of lunatics to population,	1 to 1,974	1 to 2,249
" " idiots, " "	1 to 1,138	1 to 1,465
" " both classes, "	1 to 721	1 to 887

During these 10 years, the lunatics increased at the rate of 18 per cent. and the idiots at the rate of 4 1-2 per cent., and it is gratifying to perceive that both classes increased in a ratio less than the population. It is also not the less gratifying to know that Providence has not allotted to us a larger share of this greatest of all afflictions, to which the human race is subject, than that which has fallen to the lot of most of the countries of Europe.

It has been stated, in recent publications, that the proportion of the insane to the population in the United States is 1 to 262. This statement, which first appeared in a work published at Hartford, is not founded on authentic data regarding a single state, and, so far as New York is concerned, it is entirely at variance with the results of examinations made by public authority. From some informal estimate of the number of insane in Connecticut, the number considered as exhibiting the amount of insane in the whole country was determined, but it would seem to be without the least authority. Mr. Browne, in a series of lectures before the Montrose Royal Lunatic Asylum, assumes the correctness of this estimate, and proceeds to account for the amount of insanity prevalent here by the free use of ardent spirits, the desire of the rapid acquisition of wealth and the intenseness of political feeling. Till his facts are established, it were needless to refute his conclusions.*

* See Assembly Documents, Albany, 1837.

with a very sparing hand, and thus every inducement given to the labourer to provide for the contingencies of sickness or the necessities of age.

It may appear an iron-hearted policy to sustain the existence of the indigent, without providing for their comfortable subsistence at the same time, but the exigencies of the present constitution of society require that public charity should promote, not dispense with economical habits, and that the industrious citizen, who provided for old age, by the savings of his hard-earned gains, should be more comfortable than the thriftless labourer, who throws himself upon public charity, as he advances in years. The assistance given, therefore, to the aged, and the temporarily sick, should be cautiously, even grudgingly dispensed; on the other hand, those among us whom unforeseen accident, or natural imbecility, have reduced to a dependant condition, should be suitably and comfortably maintained, as no indulgence extended to them could militate against the active labourer. Widows, with large families, and orphan children come under another class. It is then the interest and best policy of the state to take the guardianship of such children under its peculiar care, as the education they are likely to receive at home would not be calculated to make them good members of society. The relief these obtain is not, therefore, to be looked upon as a right, unless both parents being dead, they are left destitute, but as a matter of expediency, which may be defended upon different grounds.

But while the persons above referred to have a just claim upon the public for total or partial main-

tenance, such is by no means the case regarding able bodied men, and persons with large families. It is the introduction of these claims which has caused so much increase in the English poor rates, and there is but one opinion regarding the magnitude of the evils which they have brought on. At first the sums raised were moderate, but they have uniformly increased; and of late years this increase has been rapid, and they now amount to upwards of $38,-720,000 annually, notwithstanding which, the object aimed at, the relief of the poor, is very imperfectly attained.*

We have already remarked upon the danger of permitting the system of England, which now she is attempting to shake off, from becoming incorporated with the practical working of the poor laws of this country, and certainly there are some grounds for apprehending that such may one day be the case.

It is difficult to arrive at any detailed information regarding the present extent of pauperism in America, the facts not being collected in any document with which we are acquainted, but the few instances which we shall quote, may be sufficient to show, that a dread of the growth of pauperism is not an idle dream.

In the state of New York, in 1837—exclusive of New York City, the number of inhabitants being 1,904,428 in 1835—the number of persons supported in the Alms Houses, was 51,266, being 1 pauper for every 86,102 inhabitants.

In the state of Massachusetts, in 1837—the num-

* On the Management of the Poor, by Dr. Hamilton—1822.

ber of inhabitants of the towns reported, being 422,-974 in 1830—the number of persons assisted was 5,580, being 1 pauper for every 75,80 inhabitants.

In the state of Virginia, in 1838—the number of paupers was computed to be 2,500, being 1 pauper to every 274 inhabitants.

In France, in 1817—the Count Laborde estimates the number, as 1 pauper to every 35 inhabitants.

In the city of New York—the population in 1835 being 270,089, the aggregate number of persons supported at the Alms-House, and families assisted by out-door relief, amounted to 29,264.

In the city of Glasgow—where the population in 1831 was 202,426, and where immigration from Ireland increases the poor roll to a great extent, there was 1 pauper to every 41,43 persons.

In Boston, in 1836, there was 1 pauper to every 49 inhabitants.

In Philadelphia, the same year, there was 1 pauper to every 68 inhabitants.

These few statements, obtained from the reports to the respective legislatures, and other authentic sources, which might, if necessary, be made more extended, show but too clearly the footing which this lamentable system is obtaining in this country. In many of the states, on the other hand, we do not believe that it is possible to obtain information, on the subject, as the poor are provided for by each separate township, as is the case in New-Jersey, and no general report is presented to the State Legislature.

The question, therefore, assumes a magnitude, when considered in the aggregate, which well de-

mands the attention of Congress. In the heart of a thriving and industrious people, we do not hesitate to assert, that there were in 1837, one hundred thousand persons living upon, or partially supported by public charity, and this too generally administered as a right, and, by consequence, in a way most calculated to sap the foundations of society. If the magnitude of the question were fairly appreciated, there would no doubt be some means adopted to lead to the amelioration of the system, and Massachusetts has lately attempted such a reformation in the prohibition of the sale of ardent spirits by retail. But whatever may be the means which may ultimately be adopted, there cannot be a question, that the magnitude of the evil should be ascertained, and the causes which engender such vast amount of destitution among the inhabitants at large, should be accurately examined and exposed.

It is to immigration that many are inclined, and perhaps with truth, to attribute the increase of pauperism; but as far as our information will warrant us to go, we are not prepared to admit the correctness of this opinion in its fullest extent. That the number of foreigners in needy circumstances, who crowd to these shores, is great, we are aware, and in another article we have fully alluded to the subject; but that it is so great as to warrant the conclusion that the extent of pauperism is to be traced wholly to this source we cannot suppose.

1836	the foreign	paupers	in	Phil.	were	to the	natives	as	1. to 1.11
1836	"	"	"	" Boston	"	"	"	"	1. to 0.87
1837	"	"	"	" New-York,	{State and City.}	"	"	"	1. to 7.07

The number of *families* who received out-door relief in 1838, in the city of New York, was 15,448; many of these were relieved every week during the winter, and a small portion every week during the year. About one-*fifth only* are natives. The whole number of persons estimated as relieved, or supported in the Alms-House, including the above, is 80,699, (estimating the families as consisting of five persons each,) of whom 59,522 are foreigners.* There are, however, not more than 200,000 native Americans in the city; and this would make every tenth an applicant for charity.

Again, in reference to the commitments for crimes of a minor description, to the city penitentiary, the Board of Aldermen of New-York report the following table:

1827	there	were	committed	in	all	682,	of	whom	186	foreigners.
1828	"	"	"	"	"	915	"	"	220	"
1829	"	"	"	"	"	1,001	"	"	225	"
1830	"	"	"	"	"	1,262	"	"	286	"
1831	"	"	"	"	"	1,348	"	"	340	"

or, on an average, rather less than one-fourth.

We are well aware that such limited information is of no statistical value; but we quote it to show that the number of paupers in this country is not wholly to be attributed to the number of foreign immigrants, and that deeper and more accurate inquiry must be instituted before the causes of the present condition of the country are traced to their legitimate source. That they do materially increase

* We are aware that there is an apparent discrepancy between these statements. The former we procured from the Treasurer's Report to the Legislature; the latter, for the subsequent year, from an officer of the Alms-House, through the kindness of a member of the Corporation.

the pauperism of the land, is certain, but it is only just to the native, as well as to the foreign population, to determine the proportion which these bear to each other. It is in the power of the different States, or the Municipal Corporations, to pass laws relative to the importation of foreigners, and in the city of New-York such laws are now in force. Every captain or owner of a vessel has to enter into a bond that any passenger brought to the country, and landed at the port of New-York, shall not become a burden upon the community for the term of 2 years, or it is in his power to commute such responsibility, by paying a fixed sum for all his passengers, which is generally done. In 1818 the price of commutation was $3 for each person, and was reduced, in 1827, to $2 50, and further reduced, in 1830, to $1. Such a provision is just and equitable, and if, on examination, it is found that the weight of pauperism which the city of New-York is labouring under, is to be attributed mainly to the number of foreigners settled there, there could be no reason why such restrictions should not be placed upon immigration as would prevent the increase of the evil.

But at the same time, the true source of the prevailing pauperism should be dispassionately examined, and such means taken to induce industrious and economical habits, as may seem to be expedient; and above all, the honest pride of the citizen to decline resorting to public support, till every other description of relief fails, should be stimulated; and the support which seems to be administered with so liberal a hand in the city of New-York should be dealt out with greater caution, and in as small quantities as

the bare existence of its poor require. The facility with which a large portion of a community lapse into a state of dependence is but too fully illustrated by the operation of the English poor laws, and similar results will, in either country, be produced by similar causes.

This is one of those subjects to which we have referred, when speaking of the care requisite in framing the schedules, which must vary according to the state of the poor laws in each section. It is also a subject which will not require to be examined into by every returning officer, as the poor are more generally supported by county than by town rates, and therefore the returns from one officer in each county will be sufficient. In a subsequent chapter we purpose speaking of the nature of the duties to be required from the different officers, so now refer our readers to the general remarks on that subject.

In concluding this brief notice on the subject of pauperism, we must express a hope that the full examination which Government may institute into the number, expense, and condition of the poor, will show that the picture which we have drawn, is too highly coloured, and that a temporary depression, which has left no trace behind it, was the occasion of the amount of poverty in the years to which we have referred.

EDUCATION.

"THAT which makes a good constitution must keep it, namely men of wisdom and virtue, qualities that because they descend not with worldly inheritance, must be carefully propagated by a virtuous education." So said William Penn, in his Frame of Government, and the justice of the observation is only now fully appreciated. But at this time, after a long period of inaction, the public mind seems awakened to the propriety of systematically pursuing the great national object of popular education, on a general diffusion of which the happiness, as well as the safety of modern society depends. The early colonists in New England set the example of establishing a provision at public expense for the education of the community, which seems never to have been previously attempted in Modern Europe.* Happily for the human race, however, the necessity as well as the duty of enabling every inhabitant to acquire the elements of education, has gradually been more fully appreciated, and in this country, and in Europe, much public attention is attracted to the various schemes proposed for promoting so laudable an end.

It is not our intention, at present, to enter upon any examination of what the means taken to attain

* Livingston's Introduction to the Penal Code of Louisiana.

a general system of education should be, or what is the most legitimate aim of such a system. The subject is one which embraces so many topics, and concerns the permanent interests of society so pre-eminently, that we are conscious any scattered remarks we might make, would not be commensurate with the theme: leaving, therefore, to other and more able pens a vindication of the nobler ends of education, which regard not only the attainment of knowledge, but the purification of that moral atmosphere, which every where surrounds us; we pass on to the consideration of the existing condition of Education in this country.

One great impediment to improvement is the absence of all consciousness of its necessity. In the common affairs of life, most men who do not turn their particular attention to a subject, can be swayed by the statement of a friend, and an individual by dwelling on a partial view of any topic, can generally convince himself of its truth, even in opposition to his more candid judgment; so it is with communities, which being long accustomed to hear any particular institution lauded, in time come to regard it as perfect, and any project of improvement as applied to it, is pronounced to be a dangerous innovation. History abounds in absurdities of this kind, and when we regard the subjects, which so mystified our ancestors, unveiled and exposed to candid inquiry, we are struck with the erroneousness of their opinions, and amazed at their inconceivable obtuseness. The history of the sinking fund, established by the British Government, and so universally looked to as the means of liquidating, at a future period, the

accumulated national debt, is a striking instance of national blindness. This complacency in the existing institutions of a country is one of the evils most difficult to eradicate, when it refers to institutions of doubtful benefit, as well as one of the most essential to maintain, when it regards a beneficial arrangement. "Mr. Simpson, in remarking upon the obstacles to the improvement of education in Scotland, observes, 'the habit, now one hundred and fifty years old, of lauding the Scottish parochial schools, and crediting them with all the intelligence and morality which are said, to an extent beyond all truth, to characterize the manual labour class of our countrymen, has been, and is yet, an obstacle of the complacent kind; a prevailing practical belief, that if schools, *de facto*, exist, education is provided for, be these schools and these teachers what they may, is an obstacle arising from indifference and contentment.' These remarks may as justly be applied to the free schools of New England, and to the public schools of the United States generally, as to the parochial schools of Scotland."* In order to combat this impression, and to exhibit impartially the state of education, we have prepared the following abstract of the state of the various school privileges possessed in different parts of the country. To the student in these matters, our remarks present nothing of novelty, being condensed from the Report presented by Mr. Crawfurd to the British Parliament, on the subject of Prison Discipline—to which an Appendix on Education is added; but, to the general reader it may serve to exhibit the present condition of education in this

* New York Review—vol. iii. 159.

country. It is some years since this report was made, and much has been done by the friends of education in the meanwhile, yet, in presenting a view of the state of the country four years ago, we fear we give too accurate a picture of its present condition.

Massachusetts.—The first act providing for public education in this state was passed in 1789. This act was repealed, and the existing law passed in 1827, which states that "each town or district containing fifty families or householders shall be provided with a teacher or teachers, of good morals, to instruct children in orthography, reading, writing, English grammar, geography, and arithmetic, for such a term as shall be equivalent to six months for one school in each year." Corresponding provisions are made where the number of inhabitants amounts to 100, 150 and 500 families. The different expenses required for the establishment of common schools, to be raised by assessment, as other town taxes.

The result of this law will appear in the following abstract of the school returns made to the General Court in 1833, from 99 towns in this state. At this period, the number of school districts was 791, and the amount paid for public instruction $98,086. The aggregate time of keeping schools in the year, estimated in months, 2586 by male teachers, and 3725 by female teachers.

The towns from which returns are made are distributed in pretty equal proportions in the various counties of the state. The population of these towns, in 1830, was 201,681, being about one-third of the inhabitants of the state.

Towns,		305
Cost of public instruction,		$294,259
Number of school districts,		2,273
Months by female teachers,	7,758	total, 18,933
Months by male teachers,	11,175	
Pupils in public schools,		148,656
Academies and private schools,		1,185
Pupils in academies and private schools,		24,852
Pay of teachers in do. do. do.		$243,883
Number between 14 and 21 who cannot read,		30

The male teachers are allowed a salary of from 10 to 25 dollars per month: the average is probably about $15. Females are generally paid by the week, from 75 cents to $3: average about $1,25.

Maine.—When Maine became a separate state, one of the earliest measures of the Legislature was an improvement of the system then in operation for the support of common schools. It is now the duty of the assessor to assign to each school district a proportion of the money annually raised in each year for the support of common schools, according to the number of children therein between the ages of 4 and 21. School-books are furnished by the parents, but if unwilling to do so, are provided at public expense. No alien is eligible as a master; and any applicant must procure a certificate from some person of liberal education, literary pursuits, and good moral character, residing within the county, that he is "a person of sober life and conversation, and sustains a good moral character."

In the year 1825, the Legislature required a report from each town respecting the number of school districts, and other information, which in 1826 was reported as follows:

Number of school districts,	2,499
Number of persons between 4 and 21,	137,831
Number who usually attend school,	101,325
Money to be annually raised,	$119,334
Amount actually raised,	$132,263
Total expenditure, taxes, and permanent fund,	$137,878
Average monthly wages for teachers,	$12,024
Average annual expense of each scholar,	$1 35

The aggregate number of months in which the schools were open under male instructors was 5161, and under female 6285. The whole number of pupils in 1833 has been estimated at 140,000. The proportion of scholars to the whole population was 30 per cent.

New Hampshire.—The division of towns into school districts renders it practicable for all children in this state to attend schools, either in summer or winter. In 1823, the number of school districts was 1698, and of school-houses 1560. Of the former there are at present at least 1732, and of the latter 1601. Judging from the returns received from a number of towns in Merrimack county, it

is concluded that 1 of 46 of the whole population annually attend the free schools, including private schools and academies, and 1 in 30 of the entire population attend school during some portion of the year. The course of instruction in this state is very complete.

Vermont.—In 1824, the select-men in every town were authorized to assess a tax of two cents in the dollar on the ratable estate of the inhabitants, for school purposes. There is also a general school fund, and there are several restrictions on the proper application of the respective funds. The number of school districts in 1831 was about 2400. Taking the whole number of persons between the ages of 5 and 20 inclusive, this statement would show about 43 scholars to each school district. It is supposed, however, that the average who attend school is less than 30. In 1832, the Legislature made some additional provision for the promotion of education.

Connecticut.—By the sale of some lands in the west, now forming a part of the state of Ohio, for $1,200,000, this state procured a fund, now amounting to $1,700,000, which is set aside for the purpose of general education. A system sustained by funds so ample, might be expected to produce extensive results. It is, however, remarkable, that the state of education is not more advanced than before the formation of this fund. The means of education had previously been so excellent, that for 60 years not an instance had been known of an individual appearing before a court of justice who could not write his name; but of late years, there have been many instances of gross ignorance, even among members of school committees; and the effect of the fund seems to have been to render parents indifferent to the education of their children. The different school districts do not raise any sums to aid those which they receive from the public funds, and only make such arrangements for education as can be defrayed by that fund. The whole number of pupils who attend the winter schools is about 40; the number in attendance in summer is much less. The size of school-houses is much too small; they are badly built and ill-lighted.

Rhode Island.—In 1828, the Legislature appropriated $10,000 for the support of public schools, with authority to each town to raise by tax double the amount of its proportion of that sum. The

inhabitants in all the towns availed themselves of this law, and the number of schools probably now exceeds 700.

Every child of a suitable age is freely admitted into the schools, and all are taught reading, writing, and the elements of mathematics, and the elder scholars grammar and geography. The teachers, who are usually under-graduates of the colleges, receive from $15 to $30 a month, and their board. The salary of the female teachers is about $200 per annum.

There are no returns in detail from this state, which, from the elevated character of the common school education, is much to be regretted.

New-York.—The school-system in this state is generally known, and the detail necessary for a full exposition of it obliges us to limit the notice to the following short statement.—In 1834, there were 9,690 school districts, in the state, and reports were received from 9,107. At the close of 1832, there were 522,618 children, between 5 and 16 years of age, residing in the several school districts, from which reports had been received, and 512,475 were taught in those districts during that year. These attended school, on an average, for a period of eight months.

In addition to this ample public provision, the city of New York is under the special management of a public school society, which has ably discharged its duty to the state; and all portions of the population have an opportunity of benefitting by the means so amply afforded.

New-Jersey.—The state of New-Jersey has been very remiss in establishing any general system of public instruction, and in 1828, a report was made, which states, that there are 11,742 children, entirely destitute of elementary education, and about 15,000 adults, unable to read. Last year, (1838,) however, considerable exertion was made to arouse the attention of the people, and although without any means of judging of the effect of the measures then adopted, we hope that they may prove serviceable.

Pennsylvania.—The first law which was passed for the furtherance of general education, was in 1809, which, however, in 1830, still remained a dead letter; and, in that year, the Pennsylvania

society for the promotion of public schools, declares, "that there are at least 400,000 children in the state, between 5 and 15, and of these, there were not 150,000 in all the schools in the state. In 1833, a report which accompanied a draught of a new bill on the subject, alleges, that the number of voters, unable to read, in this state, may be computed at 10,000, and that 2,500 persons become voters annually, who are equally ignorant; and assuming the census of 1830 as the basis, they say, "we have 635,849 under 20 years of age, between 400,000 and 500,000 of these are, by the constitution, placed under the guardianship of the legislature—of these, by official returns made last year to the secretary of the commonwealth, only 17,462 are now receiving (and that nominally, perhaps) instruction gratis."

It is gratifying to think that a new general law has been passed appointing a common school system, with a superintendent whose sole occupation consists in directing and controlling the public schools. There is, as might be expected, great difficulty experienced in procuring suitable teachers, and it is proposed to train such in the grammar-schools and colleges now existing.

Maryland.—The amount of the public funds for the support of common schools, in 1831, was $142,063. No general returns have been procured from this state, but it would seem, that while some sections are advancing rapidly in the education of youth, the greater number are very remiss, and the population generally is poorly supplied with the means of instruction.

Ohio.—In 1831, the legislature of this state took measures to introduce a general system of education, but great prejudice prevailed in some parts of the country against it, and sufficient returns do not exist to enable us to determine the benefit which has followed from it. It seems difficult to procure a sufficient remuneration in a state where the wages of all classes of labourers are extremely high, and till this be overcome, but little can be expected from any legal enactment. In 1836, Professor C. E. Stowe was requested to make a report on the existing systems of education in Europe, to the legislature of this state, which he presented in December, 1837, and it shows that in selecting and authorizing such an agent to submit a report on the subject, the state legislature entertained en-

lightened views of their duty and obligation to advance the interests of public institutions.

Illinois.—A thirty-sixth part of each township is granted by the United States Government for the support of schools in this state, also a fund arising from 3 per cent. on the nett proceeds of the United States lands within this state, is appropriated to the encouragement of learning.

In 1831, this state contained about 47,895 inhabitants, between 4 and 16 years of age. It was then ascertained, that the whole number of children who attended school for one quarter or less portion of the year, was only 12,000, or about one-fourth of those who were of a suitable age to be at school. There then existed about 560 schools, and the average number in each amounted to about 22.

In 1833, the legislature passed a law authorizing the formation of school districts, and as the principle upon which the remuneration of the teacher depends is novel, much interest will attach to accurate returns of its operation.

Kentucky.—It does not appear that any measure has been adopted by the legislature, for the introduction of a system of education into this state, and the consequences may easily be imagined. In 1830, the number of children, between 5 and 15, were 143,738, and of these, 103,337 were attending no school—upwards of five-sevenths.

Tennessee, is in much the same condition,—160,000 youths being destitute of the means of education.

Virginia.—This state, in 1816, appropriated a large fund for the establishment of a system of instruction for the highest as well as the lowest classes, a permanent appropriation of $45,000 a year was made for the education of the poor, and $15,000 for the erection and support of a University. This law was subsequently modified in 1829, and it is thought that the system now existing may produce very beneficial results. "Considering," says Mr. Crawfurd, "that the system is of recent date, it cannot be denied but the results are beneficial, and give rise to the expectation, that

in the course of another period of 15 or 20 years, all the poor children in Virginia will enjoy the benefit of instruction."

The amount of information regarding the other states in the Union is such, that it is unnecessary to report them separately, and therefore we conclude this summary with the following statement of the aggregate results; in the New England States, there are not less than 500,000 children educated at the common schools, and in 1830, there were 473,508 white persons in those states, between the ages of 5 and 15, and allowing for the increase of population, we may say that the benefits of elementary education are universally diffused.

In the states to the south and west of New-York, however, there is reason to believe that there were 1,210,000 children without the benefits of education.

We believe that this account presents a candid and dispassionate picture of the condition of education in the country, in 1834; to what extent it has been changed and improved in the interval, we have not the means of determining, but we hope and believe, that the condition of several of the states is greatly ameliorated. It must be remembered, that any system of public education is of slow growth, and that when so much destitution prevailed in 1834, in 1839 the extent of ignorance which we have to lament must yet be great. But on the other hand, the exhibition of the progress of instruction in some of the states is peculiarly gratifying; to find that only 30 persons in Massachusetts between the ages of 14 and 21, cannot read, and that in Rhode Island, the teachers are principally under-graduates of a university, are facts which it is pleasant to record, and may the day soon come when a similar description may be applicable to the whole of the country. If

the nation, instead of recurring to the condition of the states to the east of the Delaware, as a specimen of the actual state of education, were to appreciate fully the destitution of the other sections of the country, there would be more ground for anticipating an enlarged view of the necessities of extended education, and a juster conception of what it really consists in—a public system of education suited to the wants of the community, should prepare each citizen to perform the various duties which his several relations in society impose upon him. "The proper object of education is a thorough development of all the intellectual and moral powers; the awakening and calling forth of every talent that may exist even in the remotest and obscurest corner, and giving it a useful direction. A system that will do this, and such a system only, do I consider adequate to the wants of our population. Such a system, and such a system only, can avert all the evils, and produce all the benefits which our common schools are designed to produce. True, such a system must be far more extensive and complete than any now in operation, teachers must be more numerous, skilful, persevering and self-denying; parents must take greater interest in the schools, and do more for their support; and the children must attend punctually and regularly, till the whole prescribed course is completed. All this can be done, and I hope will be done."*

And when so much is done in the several states for the promotion of this good end, and so many

* Report to the General Assembly of the State of Ohio, Dec. 19, 1837.

active labourers are in the field, stimulating and directing public attention to the subject, ought the General Government to withhold the stimulus, which a simple inquiry into the condition of the country, would afford. If a full exhibition of the present destitution in some states, and of the provisions for the education of all the inhabitants, in others, would arouse the nation at large to more active exertions, either to extend or perpetuate the blessings of education, it were surely a proper subject of inquiry in a government based upon the popular voice and sentiment of the community.

We do not propose suggesting the forms which the returns on this subject should assume, as there are two modes, which each present some advantages. The one is a direct inquiry into the number of persons upwards of 10 years of age, who can read; the other, a return to be made out by the assistant of the actual condition of education in his district. The one would be more easily complied with, and perhaps present a more correct picture of the present state of the country; the other would be much the most satisfactory, as it would exhibit the present condition of education; and perhaps, if the two modes were united, the former enumeration confined to persons upwards of 15, and the latter to those under that age, there would be nothing more to be desired regarding the topic. Hoping that this great subject will receive the attention of Government, and certainly none can be more deserving of it, we wish to conclude this hurried sketch, by reference to two subjects of much importance.

The first is, would it be just and proper to limit the

right of suffrage to those who can read and write? This is not a novel suggestion, as in the bill presented last year by Lord Brougham, to the House of Lords, provision is made for allowing every educated man a vote in the school meetings of the National Schools.* If this principle were introduced, and surely it were a politic one, by constantly making each illiterate individual feel his inferiority, it would effectually stimulate him to exertion to overcome the defect in his education, and make him anxious that his children should not labour under the same disability. In Pennsylvania, the legislature report, 100,000 voters unable to read, and of the number Mr. Crawford estimates as without the means of instruction, 1,000,000 will probably in 10 years survive and continue equally ignorant. And is it right to trust the destinies of this country in the hands of those whose passions only can be reached by declamatory orations, but whose judgment cannot be approached by the calmer voice of reason? It might be odious to make this restriction apply to those who have already exercised the privilege of voting, but we would recommend the question to the Government, and to the public generally, as well worthy of consideration. If a restriction were placed to prevent all persons under the age of 20, and foreign born citizens not naturalized from acquiring the right of suffrage, till they were capable of reading and writing, no injustice would be done to them, and we think only a due regard would be exercised for the safety and credit of the country. And little practical difficulty would result from this provision, as the judges of any court might

* Edinburgh Review, Vol. 66, reprint, 232.

be authorized to grant a certificate on the individuals reading audibly and transcribing legibly some dozen lines of any legal authority at hand. We would wish to suggest a legal authority, or statute book, in preference to the bible, both as more proper and as it would prevent the applicant from preparing himself for examination, by studying some particular chapter.

The other topic is the extent to which religious instruction in public schools should be carried. This perhaps is the most difficult and delicate subject connected with popular education. We believe that it is impossible to give other than a religious or an irreligious education, there is no middle course, the expanding affections of the youthful mind must be directed to embrace conceptions of the nature and purity of the Godhead, or they will unavoidably contract a contrary tendency. But whenever the term religion is introduced, the word sectarian seems almost instinctively to follow, and it is to keep these totally distinct, that the attention of the philanthropist should be directed. In the States of New-York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio, the bible is used as a school book, but it is to be used without note or comment, and under certain modifications, this is the course which should universally be adopted. It is possible to elucidate the leading doctrines of the bible, to impress the scholar with a reverence for God and this book as a revelation from him, without inculcating any doctrine which may be peculiar to any one sect. Professor Stowe exemplifies this in a very happy manner, in his report, by the classification of the different descriptive passages in the bible, to convince the pupil that the God of nature, who is daily revealing himself to

the young inquirer, is the same who is revealed to the more aged disciple in the pages of scripture. This exclusion of doctrinal matter from the usual routine of public instruction, is the only concession which a religious community should consent to, or the atheist will again exclaim, "the moment of the catastrophe is come, all these prejudices must fall at the same time; we must destroy them or they will destroy us."* There are certain limits by which even the most conciliatory spirit must resolve to abide, and the recognition of the divine inspiration of revelation in all public schools, is one. But there are some very difficult questions connected with this subject, as regards the education of the youth of the Catholic church, which attracts the attention of the Governor of the State of New-York, in his recent message, as one of great importance. We hope that some course may be adopted which may obviate the difficulty, and therefore we wish to suggest the propriety of inquiring into the number and comparative importance of the religious sects in this country, as it will tend to throw much light upon the useful and important subject of the principles of popular education.

* Speech of M. Dupont at the National Convention, Paris, 1792.

CLERGY.

When enumerating the various professions, page 126, we omitted the clergy, being anxious to devote a few remarks to the subject in order to direct public attention more particularly to it. While the subject of the comparative taxation in this country and Europe has attracted much attention, the number and divisions of the clergy have also been the theme of discussion, and it were much to be desired that Government should authorize some statistical inquiries being made into the religious condition of the nation. We are well aware that the most studied separation has always been maintained between the Executive and any body of Christians, and that the evils arising from the religious establishment of England, have served as a beacon, to warn America from becoming entangled in the same snare. But this total separation by no means precludes the propriety of making some statistical inquiries into the provision which Christians in this country, by their own voluntary exertions afford to their ministers, or the number of these who are settled throughout the country. This was one of the topics regarding which Mr. Livingston endeavoured to obtain some information, but unfortunately, on this as well as on other subjects, he met with no encouragement. A popular government which depends for its support

upon the morality and good faith of its citizens, has naturally a deep interest in furthering and promoting the religious feeling of the community, and is necessarily interested in any inquiry into the present means of religious instruction, with which the country is provided.

Of the number of men who are devoted to the cause of the Christian religion, embracing the various sects into which they are divided, little accurate information exists. It may be thought that such might easily be obtained, yet we find that the returns made in the publications of the various denominations are so vague and contradictory, that no accurate analysis can be made of the number of spiritual teachers; and in the following extracts from clerical writers which we give, there is a vagueness of assertion which completely contradicts a patient inquiry into facts. The Rev. Calvin Colton, in his Church and State in America, says in 1834: "By the last census, (1830,) the population of the United States was 12,866,020. Allowing three hundred Catholic priests, we shall then have, of all denominations, as may be seen, full *one* minister to every thousand souls, by the estimate of the last census. Deducting the Roman Catholics, and those not estimated orthodox, all of which, in their own connections, doubtless have their influence in promoting morality, and in securing the good order of society, we shall still have 11,138, whose Christianity is generally sound, whose qualifications are for the most part fitted for the several classes of society among whom their labours are distributed, and a very large proportion of whom would not suffer by comparison in piety and professional learning with

any set of men of the same class in the Christian world, when viewed in mass and in their ordinary relations to society." From such a flattering statement of the religious condition of this land, let us turn to another authority—the Rev. Dr. Jarvis, of Middletown, and hear what, in 1824, he said of the condition of religion here. "It has been shown by published documents that on the general estimate of one pastor to a thousand souls, there are not enough at this present moment to supply *three millions* of our population, and consequently, that there are now seven millions in the United States, who are either wholly or partially deprived of the means of religion;" the difference of ten years in these estimates cannot be supposed to have produced much of their variance. In 1833, at the anniversary of the Home Missionary Society, the Rev. Mr. Plummer says: "Let us now see how these two portions (the Western and Southern States) are instructed. In the South, embracing all ministers of all Evangelical denominations, the number is 1572, being one minister to 3321 of a population. In the West, adding the Cumberland presbytery, in 1817, there is one minister to 2190 persons. And of the denominations which require a sound and thorough education, before men are permitted to enter the ministry, there are at the rate of one minister to 12,429."

With such discrepancy in the estimated number of clergy officiating in the United States, it were vain to attempt to procure any correct estimate of their stipends, or any arrangement according to the churches to which they belong. But each of these are subjects which the General Government might well

inquire into, and obtain satisfactory and accurate information regarding.

There may be many difficulties in determining exactly who "Ministers" are, as in many parts of the country, and in some denominations, those bear this appellation who, throughout the week, support themselves by secular labour. Now it is evidently not the part of Government, standing aloof from all religious denominations, to inquire particularly into the ecclesiastical constitution of the various sects with which this country teems; it should rather adopt some general definition which would include the class which it is desirable to enumerate, and such a definition were preferable, if it were based upon the visible means of support, as being less liable to misconstruction. It is impossible to take education as the criterion, as there would both be something inquisitorial in inquiring into the youthful studies of settled pastors, and also as all the sects in this country admit of certain established qualifications as an equivalent for academical instruction.

Not being able to take education as the criterion by which to determine who are clergymen, the only other test is, are they supported by clerical labours, or do they derive a maintenance by teaching religion? We wish not to lower the standard by which the clergy might be estimated, and in taking their pecuniary means, we desire only to establish a criterion regarding which there can be no misconception. In such a general division, all we believe, will be included who ought to be enumerated as among the clergy, and those who merely exhort and preach extemporaneously, without preparation and previous education,

and labour for their support in some secular employment should be omitted. If all who preach were included in these returns, they would be of no value as affording any means of comparing the relative strength of the Christian ministry in Europe and America.

Of the aggregate expense of the religious instruction in this country nothing is known, though the Quarterly Review states it to be about $16,914,944, or about $1150 to each clergyman. We could wish that such were an accurate statement of the amount received by the American clergy, but the assertion is too ridiculous to require refutation. What the actual amount may be, it remains for Government, which alone can institute an inquiry into the subject, in all parts of the country, to determine. In the statistical tables we find that Maine had in 1835, 368 clergy, whose united income amounted to $86,795, or about $236 each. The aggregate amount of ministers' salary paid in each district might be given, so that the return would lose that invidious and personal appearance it might otherwise present.

It is difficult to say, to what extent, if any, the inquiry into the religious divisions of the sects should be carried, but we think that it should be attempted, not so much from the interest or utility it would be of to the statist, as from the satisfaction it would afford to some bodies of Christians. It would of course be a vain thing for Government to attempt accurately to discriminate the various shades which distinguish the different religious denominations among us, and to have each separately enumerated; but some more general classification might be adopted, uniting

under one head, those sects whose doctrine and principles mainly corresponded. We rather believe that 7 or 8 divisions would be as particular a classification of the various sects as is required. But should a more complete enumeration be considered desirable, we append the following list taken from the American Almanac for 1839, as furnishing a plan which in such a case, might be followed.*

If the principle we have above applied to discriminate who are and who are not ministers, viz: whether they are supported solely by their profession be correct, many in the above list would be excluded, and the aggregate of 15,000 be very much reduced. It therefore would be well, should a full list like this be adopted, to have two columns, so that those who labour manually should be separated from those of a more educated character, who are supported entirely by the funds set apart for religious purposes.

	No. of Ministers.
* Baptists,	4239
" Free-will,	612
" Seventh Day,	46
" Six Principle,	10
Catholics,	389
Christians,	800
Congregationalists,	1150
Dutch Reformed,	192
Episcopalians,	849
Friends,	"
German Reformed,	180
Jews,	"
Lutherans	267
Mennonites,	"
Methodists,	2764
" Protestant,	400
Moravian, or United Brethren,	33
Mormonites,	
New Jerusalem Church,	33
Presbyterians,	2225
" Cumberland,	450
" Associate	87
" Reformed,	20
" Associate Reformed,	116
Shakers,	45
Tunkers,	40
Unitarians,	174
Univeralists,	317

Whether it is deemed advisable or not for Government to enter into the examination of this subject at all, it is not for us to decide; but we rest assured that however numerous the clergy in this country may be, and whatever be their means of subsistence, no country in the world can boast of a more patient and laborious ministry, and that no where does zeal for the cause in which they have embarked, burn with a brighter or a purer flame.

TAXATION.

In the statistical tables on this subject, presented to Congress in 1833, Mr. Livingston makes the following remarks: "A controversy has arisen of some interest to the reputation of our country, and which may affect that of representative Governments every where. It is asserted that the citizens of the United States pay a greater amount of taxes in proportion to the population than the subjects of France; from which the conclusion is drawn, that the republican form of government, is more expensive than a monarchical. I have been requested to collect facts that may elucidate this question. To do it, the necessary information must be procured from each state, and each town and county in it. This will certainly be attended with some trouble, and I have thought that reliance might be placed on your exertions (the executive officers of each state) to procure it for your state, even if it should answer no other end than that of determining the truth or falsehood of the position; but much more important benefits will result from it. First, as to your own state, it will give you a mass of fiscal statistics, the collection of which cannot but be highly useful to your legislature, enabling them to compare the different modes of apportioning the public burdens in the towns, counties and cities of the state, and thus correcting abuses, selecting the best mode of laying the local and general

charges, so as to produce economy in the expenditure and equality in the burdens of the citizens. *This information collected in a tabular form has not, it is believed, been in any State, yet submitted to the Legislature or the public.*"

"Secondly, in relation to the Union. When the information has been received from the different states, which it is the object of this inquiry to get from each, tables of the returns will be made out at this Department and the whole will be sent to every state, thus affording to all a condensed view of the burdens borne by the citizens of the states, respectively, and enabling them to profit by the good and avoid the evil in the respective modes of laying and collecting taxes and other public contributions."

The controversy here alluded to, arose from some statements in La Revue Britannique and in the Quarterly Review, in the former of which, it was stated, that the expenses per capitem of the whole taxation, were greater in the United States, than in France, and the latter, that when the population of the United States equalled the present population of England, the expenses of its present form of government would be greater.

But the tables sent to the different states for further information, in most cases died a natural death, no returns being made to the General Government, and the controversy abroad ended as usual, without either party convincing the other. Now it is remarkable that the amount of information possessed by the writers in that day, remains unaltered by any further insight or returns on the subject, and were the controversy again to be renewed, no more detailed state-

ments based upon accurate information could be obtained. The executive officers of some of the State Governments are ignorant of the subject, and therefore it were vain to expect that they could report upon it to the department of State, and in New-Jersey, neither the amount of school tax, road tax, nor poor tax, is known beyond the limits of the different counties, and in some cases, such knowledge is confined to the smaller townships. A cursory review of the controversy, as carried on in Europe, on the subject, may be useful, when the reader is assured that the same topics may be again the subject of debate without any additional power to ascertain the truth being in the mean time attained.

The writer of the article in the Revue Britannique, has instituted a comparison generally, between the aggregate burdens borne by the French nation, to defray the expenses of the state, and those which the Americans support for a similar purpose; he even includes in his estimate, the military and naval establishments, foreign relations, and all the items of the national budgets of the two countries; and calculates that the annual sum of the whole public charges paid by each inhabitant of the United States, is thirty-five francs, while in France, it is but thirty-one francs.

The Quarterly Review does not attempt a general comparison between the expenses of Great Britain and those of the United States, but taking certain items of the respective annual expenditures, comes to a prospective conclusion that if the expenditures are not quite equal at present, yet, when the population of the United States shall equal that of Great

Britain, these items by a pro rata increase, will, if parliamentary pensions be omitted, exceed the equivalent expenses in England, by about $280,000. With regard to the administration of justice, the Reviewer gives no positive estimate, but affirms that there is every reason to believe that the judiciary expenditure of America, exceeds that of England.

To these statements the attention of General La Fayette was soon called, and instead of answering them himself, he addressed two of his friends, Gen. Bernard and Fenimore Cooper, at that time in Paris, from whom he hoped to obtain some counter statements, which would oppose the the fallacy of such estimates of the taxes paid by the American citizen.

To show the nature of the statements made by the different individuals, and public journals, though without any intention of awarding the victory to either one party or the other, as we feel that no sufficient information exists to warrant a correct judgment being formed regarding it: we shall give a short summary of the estimates made by these respective authorities. Each individual pays annually towards the public expenditures, as follows:

According to Revue Britannique, No. 12, 1831,

In France,	31 francs,	or $5.82
In the United States,	35 "	" 6.57

Mr. Fenimore Cooper's estimate.

In the United States, i. e. a citizen of New-York, to the General and State Governments, including principal and interest of public debt, schools, sup-

port of clergy, poor, internal improvements, &c., at 14 francs 5 centimes, or - - - $2.73

Without the ecclesiastical expenses, the poor, or sums paid towards the extinction of the public debt and interest upon it, 5 francs, 35c. - - 1.00

To the State of New-York, 95c. - - 18

General Bernard's Calculation.

In France, without clergy,	28f. 12c.	$5.28
In United States, do.	11f. 47c.	2.16
In France, without the debt,	20f. 57c.	3.86
In United States, do.	6f. 6c.	
In United States, maximum paid by each individual to state government, - - -	1,32	$ .24
Or to federal and state governments, exclusive of clergy.		2.51

Capt. Basil Hall.

In United States to General Government,	$2.24
Ditto State Government,	72

Mr. Ouseley's Statement.

For the average expenditure of the United Kingdom, during the years 1828, '29 and '30, including the national debt, the clergy of every denomination, and the poor rates, an inhabitant of Great Britain pays a minimum of about $12.80

Or deducting the interest of the national debt, say £28,000,000, about 7.20

The disparity in these estimates is very great, and it is impossible to decide upon their comparative accuracy, the data on which the conclusions are formed being so variable. It is curious to trace in detail the steps by which these authors arrive at their different conclusions.

The Revue Britannique thus enumerates the different items of expense to America:

	Francs.
Federal Budget, - -	131,000,000
States, - - - -	131,000,000
Tolls and Bridges, - -	10,000,000
Clergy, - - - -	30,000,000
Militia in time of peace,	50,000,000
	352,000,000
Equal to	$66,041,351

This sum divided by the supposed population in 1830, viz., 11,000,000, the sum of $6.57 is obtained as the expense of each individual.*

General Bernard, in commenting upon the above table, thus varies the results at which he arrives.

The American Budget he places at 130,431,475f. 90c., or about $244,712—being nearly the same amount as the Revue, while he makes the French Budget, including the same heads of expenditure, f.977,935,329, or about $1,834,775.

The second item, however, he places at 16,970,576f., as the maximum of the aggregate state expenses of the Union. In arriving at this conclusion,

* We reduce these respective sums to dollars, at the rate of 5.33 francs to a dollar, although there is some discrepancy in the calculation.

the General takes the expenditure of two of the richest and most populous states, Virginia and New-York, and examining into their expenses obtains 1f. 25c. as the maximum of individual charge, and this multiplied into the whole population of the Union gives the above aggregate.

The large charge for tolls and turnpikes, the General properly discards from the state expenses, as in this country and England, government have nothing to do with the maintenance of the highways, and each individual contributes to their support in proportion to the use he makes of them, in this particular corresponding to the pontages, canal tolls, and ferries in France.

With regard to the clergy, General Bernard professes a complete inability to make any calculation or comparison as to the annual expenses borne by the population of the different countries. The Quarterly Review founds its calculations upon a statement of Dr. Cooper's,* from which he estimates the aggregate amount paid throughout the Union to the clergy of all sects, at £3,081,650, or $14,914,944, and on the same authority states the number of clergy to be 13,000, and deduces the annual income of each clergyman in America to be $1150, while it makes the income of the English clergyman on an average amount only to $968. This is a curious instance both of the colouring which party zeal can give to certain statements, forgetting at the time the main influence of the argument, and the business-like aspect which such palpable absurdities can as-

* Of Columbia College, South Carolina.

sume, when reduced to the form of a calculation. Mr. F. Cooper, on the other hand, seems to reduce the income of each clergyman in the state of New-York, to less than $400, and as 10,000 clergy seem to to be more than actually exist in the United States, the expense of their support would, instead of $14,-919,944, be only $4,000,000.

Lastly—there can be no better authority on all subjects connected with the military organization of this country than General Bernard. The Revue Britannique contrasts the military establishment of France with the militia system of America, the expense of which it values at 50,000,000 of francs, forgetting to estimate the cost of an exactly corresponding institution of France—the National Guards.

Such are the steps by which the General reduces the large amount of the American Budget, and he concludes by making the annual mean amount of public charge paid by each American, at f.11,47c., or about $2.16.

We have traced, perhaps at too great length the various positions which were taken in the controversy alluded to by different writers, and certainly without attempting to come to any conclusion of our own, we have exhibited the statements made by each party to show the vagueness of the data from which they argued. The returns from the several states which the inquiries submitted to the different governments called out, were, as we have already stated, extremely defective. And it is hardly possible to classify and arrange those that were made. Partial returns were procured from Maine, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Ohio, Indiana, and Missouri; but it is evident, that

as a calculation of the whole amount of the expenditure of these states, drawn from these very partial returns, must be liable to error, that error must be much increased, when such calculation is the basis of computation for the whole Union. According to the summary appended to these returns, we find the aggregate expenses in these states to be thus computed:

Population according to 5th census—1830—in these states,	2,215,718
Aggregate annual amount of taxes of all kinds, levied for town, county, or state purposes, also the annual expenditure of the General Government, &c.	$3,438,515.12
Number of clergy of all denominations actual residents,	1792
Aggregate amount of salaries received by resident clergymen, annually,	$456,758.21
Number of days' labour assessed in each year, on the whole towns for the construction and repair of roads and bridges,	1,115,783
Average value of labour per day, for the construction and repair of roads and bridges,	$0.87
Total amount of labour, as per foregoing valuation, for the construction and repair of roads and bridges,	$971,188.73
The returns of the paupers are too defective to be applied to the whole of these states.	

The aggregate annual amount of township tax for the support of free schools,	$219,990
Aggregate number of pupils in all the free schools in four of these states only,	218,744
Number of colleges,	13
Aggregate number of students in all the colleges,	1175
Aggregate amount of contingent expenses incurred in the several towns,	$272,964.02
From these imperfect data, the Secretary of the Treasury estimates the aggregate of taxes levied within the several states, for the support of the State Governments, at	$19,280,582.92
And the annual expenditure of the National Government at	$13,556,800.60
Making in the grand total,	$32,837,383.52

Making the annual expenditure of each individual in the United States, exclusive of slaves, about three dollars, three cents—of that sum, $1.25 being to the General Government, and $1.79 being to the State Government.

Dr. Cleland thus states the taxes per head in the United Kingdom to be

	Population.	Average sum paid by each inhabitant.
England and Wales,	13,894,574	$14.94
Scotland,	2,365,807	10.36
Ireland,	7,802,365	2.70

And this includes only the sum collected by the general government, exclusive of poor tax and county rates. "The French," he continues, "Austrians, Germans, Russians, Italians, &c. pay from $3 to $6 per head to the state. The Irish seem to be the lightest taxed people in Europe."

Before leaving this subject, which presents a tissue of contradictory statements, and stands, as the reader will perceive, greatly in need of more explicit information, we will quote the condition of the state of New Jersey in 1832.

The expenses of this state, for the local government, including the military force together with the value of the time consumed in training, and expenses of all kinds,	$141,440
The annual cost of religious instruction,	120,000
State charges, including township and county rates, at $1,29$\frac{1}{20}$ per head, nearly,	427,405 15
	$688,845 15

Which, divided by the population, (330,000,) would give about $2.08 as the share each had to pay towards the state government.

As so much ambiguity exists relative to the amount of taxes collected, we cannot expect to find much accurate information regarding the *expense of collection* of the revenue in the United States. Of the sums allowed for collecting the different state assessments we are unable to obtain the least information; and the following statements will show the comparative cost of management in this country and Europe.

In the United States collection costs $5\frac{5}{6}$ per cent.
In England, according to Sir Henry Parnell, $12\frac{1}{4}$ " "
In France,* $12\frac{7}{10}$ " "
or, more particularly, according to Mr. McCulloch, the collection of the

Custom duties,	in	England,	cost	about	$5\frac{5}{6}$	per	cent.
"	"	" Ireland,	"	"	$12\frac{1}{4}$	"	"
Excise "	"	England,	"	"	$6\frac{2}{3}$	"	"
"	"	" Ireland,	"	"	$9\frac{2}{3}$	"	"
Stamp "	"	——	"	"	$2\frac{1}{2}$	"	"
Assessed taxes,	"	England.	"	"	$5\frac{2}{5}$	"	"

on their gross value.

These statements, it will be observed, refer only to the collection of the general taxes, and it is probable that the per-centage allowed for collecting the other sums expended in state, county and township expenses, is much greater. It were therefore well fully to investigate the subject.

In the various states in the Union, the principles upon which the taxes are assessed differ materially; and on this account much previous care will be necessary to procure schedules suited to the condition of each section of the country. In some cities, and also in some states, direct taxes are levied upon the personal and heritable property, and we believe no great injustice is done to the inhabitants; yet some authors inveigh against the policy of this mode of taxation. "Direct taxes on property have been the curse of every country into which they have been introduced. To evade them, people that are not poor

* See Ouseley's Remarks on the Statistics of the United States, to which work we have been indebted for much of the foregoing information.

counterfeit poverty; some of the most powerful incentives to industry and economy are in consequence destroyed, at the same time that inferior stock and machinery are made use of. Such taxes are besides most unpopular, as well from their requiring an odious though ineffectual inquisition into the affairs of individuals, as from their being direct."* It would be useful to know if these disadvantages apply to the practical application of direct taxation, or only to the influence it is supposed in theory to exercise.

On the other hand, in other states, no direct or personal tax is levied, but assessed taxes prevail, as in New-Jersey, where grist mills pay $3 each run of stones, cotton factories $30, saw mills each saw $8, &c.

Again, in the statistical tables already referred to, we find that New Hampshire levies a poll tax on the male citizens from 18 to 70 years of age, as well as on real and personal estate, the expense of the collection of which is only about 1 per cent.

These different modes which the states pursue in imposing assessments upon their citizens, render it necessary that the schedules transmitted to each state should agree with the form in which the information is to be reported; and this can only be attained by previously instituting the necessary inquiries into the different methods pursued. The question, as Mr. Livingston justly remarks, is one of real utility, as it will enable the state legislatures "to profit by the good, and avoid the evil," in the systems of taxation which are at present in use in the United States. And till this inquiry takes place, the con-

* McCulloch's Statistics of the British Empire, ii. 516.

troversy regarding the comparative expense of monarchical and republican governments is liable at any time to be again awakened, and no more correct data, as we have before remarked, exist now than formerly to ascertain the facts necessary for deciding this interesting question.

Indeed, the means of estimating the value of the taxable property in the country are rather diminishing than increasing, as some very useful insight was obtained into the subject by the general government returns in 1815, when it resorted to direct taxation; and every day, of course, such information becomes more obsolete and useless. These returns are more general than any that have been since procured; and although we do not think it advisable to recommend a corresponding valuation of property, (as there is no means of insuring that assessors will refer to the same standard of value property of the same description, in different states,) we may here insert an abstract, as illustrating the nature of the returns which government found it necessary to procure, when levying direct taxes upon the several states.

	Valuation of houses and lands, after deducting estimated value of slaves, in 1814 and 1815.	Value of houses and lands in 1799, omitting fractions.	Increase from 1799 to 1814 and 1815.	Average value of land including buildings, in 1814 and 1815.
New Hampshire,	$38,745,974	$23,175,046	$15,570,828	$9.
Massachusetts,	143,765,560	83,992,468	59,773,092	18.
Rhode Island,	20,907,766	11,066,357	9,841,489	39.
Connecticut,	88,534,971	48,313.424	40,221,547	34.
Vermont,	32,461,120	16,723,873	15,737,247	6.40
New-York,	269,370,900	100.380,706	168,990,194	16.50
New Jersey,	95,899,333	36,473,899	59,425,434	35.
Pennsylvania,	346,633,889	102,145,900	244,487,989	29.
Delaware,	13,449,370	6,234,413	7,204,967	13.
Maryland,	106,490,638	32,372,290	74,118,348	20.
Virginia,	165,608,199	71,225,127	94,383,072	4.15
N. Carolina,	51,517,031	30,842,372	20,674,659	2.50
S. Carolina,	74,325,262	17,465,012	56,868,250	8.
Georgia,	31,487,658	12.061,137	19,426,521	2.50
Kentucky,	66,878,587	21,408,090	45,470,497	4.
Tennessee,	24,233,750	6,134,108	18,099,662	6.
Ohio,	61,347,215			

We have omitted, on the present occasion. all reference to the various theories which speculative economists have urged upon the comparative advantages of taxes on production and consumption; for there is as yet so much uncertainty in the views entertained by them, that we are afraid to trust ourselves on such an interesting yet difficult subject. We believe, however, in this country it is universally conceded that the only use of taxation is to furnish the necessary supplies to government, for an economical administration of its duties and powers; and that no feeling exists of the propriety of burdening one class more than another for the support of the public treasury. Dr. Chalmers would, we fear, find in this republican country but few supporters when he says: "We cannot sympathize with the zeal for retrenchment, believing as we do, that if taxes were rightly laid, and the produce of them rightly expended, they admit of being most beneficially increased for the best interests of the nation;"* for the universal feeling obtains here, that the present income ought to be so reduced as to compel the government officers to take every opportunity of curtailing the public expenditure.

But returning from these digressions, let us urge the propriety of instituting inquiries into the present condition of taxation, existing in the different states; as well for the improvement of the modes pursued for raising their revenue, by some of the states, and the general interest of such an inquiry to the statist, as for the purpose of exhibiting to the General Government the resources which are at its command.

* Chalmers' Political Economy—"Effect of Taxes."

It were much to be desired, that the different systems of taxation, prevailing throughout the country should be accurately known, when Government, instead of adopting a uniform system, like the one above, might conform to the existing methods, in use in the separate states, and thus with greater promptness and less difficulty, raise the requisite sums. We have already, at page 19, referred to the inequality of the last mode of apportioning the Federal taxes, and to the advantage of the previous preparation of a body of serviceable information which can be rendered available on any sudden emergency.

And in this investigation into the amount of taxes collected in the United States, much collateral information may incidentally be procured relative to the wealth and internal economy of the country. The returns should be obtained from the different states in the form in which they are presented to the State legislatures, or to the different county courts, and they should be carefully remodelled at Washington, according to some general scheme, which will most fully exhibit the information they contain. By returns thus procured, and carefully condensed, not only will sufficient data be afforded to put at rest the controversy regarding the comparative expense of the different governments in Europe and America, but many evident practical advantages will follow the general knowledge of the burdens which each state imposes upon its inhabitants. The effect of the various public improvements upon the burdens, wealth, and income of the states will be fully illustrated, the progressive advancement which each district is making, and the general regulations of police and government will be plainly exhibited.

AGENTS TO BE EMPLOYED.

We are well aware, that much of the difficulty of procuring accurate statistical information consists in the want of able and efficient agents, and have only to regret that our ignorance of the manner in which the business of the different departments at Washington is conducted, must prevent our entering so fully into this necessary topic as we could wish. We must therefore rest content with making such suggestions as seem likely to be of service, and such reference to the general principles which should be kept in view as the occasion may seem to demand.

The sum of six hundred thousand dollars will probably be expended in the course of the year 1840, in taking an enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States, and the advantages which would result from the judicious application of this sum is a sufficient reason for attracting public attention to it. The expenses of the former censûs have been:

Years.	Population.	Amount.	
1790	3,924,843	$41,623	
1800	5,319,762	80,000	
1810	7,240,903	190,000	
1820	9,654,548	240,000	
1830	12,866,920	400,000	appropriation.
1840	19,335,810*	600,000	estimate.

* According to Darby's View of the United States, though evidently too large.

We have no means of ascertaining exactly how much the appropriation for the purpose of taking the next census will be, but we believe that it will not be under the sum we have here stated.

On previous occasions, the duty of taking the census has fallen entirely upon the Secretary of State, and of course will, in the present instance, come under his control; but in some of the preceding chapters we have spoken of the Secretary of the Treasury as being the individual who would probably direct the inquiries into the condition of the manufacturing and agricultural interests of the country, and we have done so, as we find that the returns on the former of these subjects, which were laid before Congress in 1832, were prepared by him. It is not to be expected, however, that either of these officers can bestow the requisite time and attention to the topics proposed in the foregoing tables, and of course much of the accuracy and usefulness of the information procured, must depend upon the competency of the persons to whom is committed the preparation of the schedules, and the supervision and arrangement of the returns.

The mode of procedure hitherto adopted has been to permit the different United States marshals to appoint as many assistants as they might deem necessary, who, commencing on the 1st of June, should take an enumeration of tee inhabitants in their several districts, in a given time. The marshals have been allowed a small fixed sum, varying from $150 to $400, for their trouble, while the assistants were paid so much for every hundred inhabitants they

enumerated, according to a scale graduated by the density of the population.

As the labour required to procure all the returns suggested in the foregoing pages would be much greater than heretofore, we are inclined to think that both greater responsibility should be imposed, and higher compensation awarded to the Marshals. In some of the states, the time of the United States marshals is so completely occupied at present, that it might be better to appoint an additional officer, or "Census Marshal," to superintend the returns for such districts. It should be the duty of the Marshal to examine the returns from each of his assistants, to correct all errors in the addition of the several items, and, when necessary, to transmit them again to the assistant for completion if defective, or for correction, if inaccurate. When thus revised, it should be his duty to forward them to the Department at Washington; and a certificate of their receipt, examination, and approval by the Secretary, should be obtained, before any remuneration for his trouble is allowed him. The fairest mode of determining the amount of this would be, by allowing a per-centage on the dues of his assistants, which, at 5 per cent., would yield, on an average, nearly $1000 to each Marshal employed.

It should, we think, be the duty of the assistants or deputies, (should the suggestions we have made be adopted,) to report the age and place of nativity of every inhabitant; the number of births, deaths, and marriages, that have occurred in their districts within a year; the education and occupation of the inhabitants, together with the manufacturing and

agricultural returns which may apply to their sections; and further, to write in each column of the schedule in which they make no entry, that nothing relative to the subject exists. When the column is simply left blank, there is always some ambiguity, whether no information regarding it can be procured, or whether the deputy has omitted to procure it. These returns thus completely filled up, they should return to their respective Marshals, and if correction were required in any of them, it would of course be their duty to comply with the further directions of the Marshals, but if none such were necessary, the duty which belonged to the assistants would be fulfilled.

Again, it should be the duty of the Marshals, to procure returns, of another class, viz: those which the government might require from the different township and county clerks. These returns would embrace the different topics which we have referred to under the heads of crime, pauperism, education, and taxation; which not being the result of personal inquiry, we think would be more satisfactorily answered by the different state officers. Their information, it would therefore be the duty of the marshals to examine, and if of the required character, to forward to the department. In some of the states the information desired could all be procured at the seat of legislature, in which case the Marshals might be authorized to appoint special agents, to make out the necessary abstracts; and when there was little prospect of the county officers attending to the matter they might further be authorized to send agents

through the different counties to obtain the requisite returns.

The district attorneys might be called upon to render such assistance to the Marshals as they might require, to frame the schedules applicable to the taxation in use in their sections, and to report the state of the criminal code and other similar topics.

The postmasters in the United States might also be requested to furnish any information which they might have it in their power to procure, and as there is at least one in every township in the country, the most detailed accounts could through them be obtained.

It might, to attain these ends, be advisable for the United States Government to pass a law requiring all holding office under the executive authority, to comply with the requirements of the secretaries relative to the census, also to request the several states to pass similar laws, obliging their officers to make, on adequate compensation, any returns which the general government may require, and to this we presume no objection would be made.

The amount of compensation which the different officers are to receive, as we have repeatedly remarked, should be proportioned to the services which are required of them. This principle is so self-evident, that it is unnecessary to dwell upon it, and we do not feel qualified to speak as to the sums which should be awarded for each class of services. As a general rule, jailors and county officers reporting paupers, might be allowed as much as the assistant Marshals are when reporting the number, &c., of the

inhabitants, but what that should be, it rests with Congress to decide.

We do not think it necessary to enter into accurate statistical details regarding the products of those sparsely settled districts in which it is so expensive to collect information, and where nothing is ever manufactured, and little if anything raised above the consumption of the district. Where therefore the population does not exceed ten inhabitants in one square mile, no account should be taken of the statistical returns relative to manufactures or agriculture.

The number of districts at the taking of the last census, was 34, (counting Florida as one only) to each of which a separate Marshal was appointed, they contained in all, 937 counties, and reckoning the counties and subdivisions of counties where such exist, there were 5789 returning districts in the United States.

As the whole subject of the agents to be employed, must be much better understood by those conversant with the business details of the different departments at Washington, we feel that it is unnecessary to dwell longer on a subject which can be of no interest to the general reader, however essential it may be to the furtherance of the ends we have in view.

CONCLUSION.

We have now presented to the reader, in detail, the several subjects which we think might advantageously occupy a place in the government returns for 1840; and although we are conscious of the defects in our notices of these various topics, we yet indulge the hope that they may serve the end we have in view, and further the interests of statistical science. There are many interesting inquiries to which we have made no reference, from the desire of not defeating our purpose by too many suggestions, but should be glad to see them embraced in the list of topics. Among these might be mentioned a large class of subjects arising from the internal improvements of the country, the canals, railroads, and turnpikes, with the cost of their construction, the nature of the work performed, the extent of the undertaking, and the yearly returns which the tolls afforded—the various literary institutions and societies, the universities, medical, theological and law schools, with the amount of their endowments, the number of pupils and extent of their libraries, or the objects and views of the societies, their resources and value of their collections—the number of charitable and religious societies, whether for relieving the poor or propagating Christianity, their funds, objects, and general management. We might add others, but these may suffice as specimens of the topics for inquiry which might be suggested in addition to those we have proposed.

Different individuals attach different degrees of importance to the subjects of inquiry, but we believe those we have more fully alluded to in the foregoing pages are such as will most generally be considered as best adapted for examination.

We have already noticed the care evinced in the preparation of the census returns for 1830, which, having had occasion to examine by different tests, we have never been able to discover inaccurate. It is much to be desired that the same accuracy should characterize all future statistical returns, though, from the great difficulty of printing columns of figures, much attention is required to prevent typographical errors from vitiating the returns. When commending the manner in which the last census was prepared, and desiring to witness the same care bestowed upon the succeeding one, let us not be understood as considering apparent detail as a proof of accurate research; for nothing is easier, and, in our opinion, nothing is more futile than to carry out decimal fractions to an almost interminable length, and prove, as it were, the basis of a calculation by the detail into which it is carried. From the various authorities to which we have had occasion to refer, we may cite a few instances of this absurd subdivision: in the statistical tables of 1835, at page 190, we have this number inserted, $87\frac{0409478}{10000000}$; in many of Mr. McCulloch's tables, the decimal fractions are extended to six figures; and Dr. Cleland speaks of a sum as being three shillings, one penny, one farthing, and one-eighth of a farthing. Such particular calculations subserve no useful end; they neither insure accuracy in the aggregate, nor convey more definite ideas to

the reader. In astronomical tables, we can understand a reason existing for extending the calculations to the most particular minuteness ; but in calculations where there is always a certain degree of vagueness in the premises, we can see no advantage in such an ostentatious parade of figures. We have never associated it with superior accuracy, and are commonly inclined rather to question the truth of a statement that requires to divert attention from the integer to the fractional parts.

In the foregoing pages we have alluded to actual returns, discarding all estimates, than which nothing can be more fallacious and embarrassing. It were much to be preferred that any return should be remitted blank to the department, rather than filled up by some estimate of the assistant; for however much we may esteem the calculations and estimates of some men, as a general rule they are of no statistical value. We have, in a former part of this essay, when speaking of the general principles of statistical inquiry, referred to this subject, and further remarks were therefore unnecessary ; but we hope that it is a subject to which the attention of government will be attracted, and all diligence be used to prevent unauthorized estimates from being intermixed with ascertained facts.

The unexpected length to which this essay has extended must plead our apology for the brevity of these remarks, as we cannot but believe that the reader must have comprehended alike the objects we have aimed at, and the means by which we have proposed to attain them.